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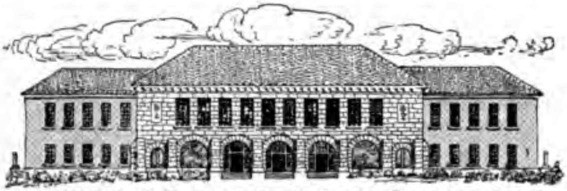

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CALIFORNIA COUNCIL OF EDUCATION.

FIRST REPORT

OF THE

Committee on the Course of Study for Elementary Schools.

OAKLAND, CALIFORNIA.
1895.

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REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE OF THE CALIFORNIA COUNCIL OF EDUCATION ON THE COURSE OF STUDY FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

To the California State Council of Education:

GENTLEMEN: Your committee, appointed at the meeting of the State Council in Santa Cruz, December 28, 1894, to consider the question of a uniform course of study for the elementary schools of this State, begs leave to present the following report of progress:

It was apparent from the outset that the task assigned to this committee was a difficult one. Probably no one who has seriously studied the problem feels competent to give a final answer to all or nearly all of the perplexing questions it suggests. Yet it seems clear that, even in the present unstable condition of educational thought, a decided improvement of courses now in use is possible. In particular, courses which may have been framed with reference to one or two controlling ideas can hardly fail to receive advantage from an all-round consideration of the subject from various points of view. An eclectic course, taking indiscriminately, a little here from one school of thought, and a little there from another, is certainly not desirable; but a course framed deliberately and with definite purpose, after a broad and catholic examination of the subject, is eminently to be desired.

Your committee does not interpret its commission as requiring it to prepare a course, complete in all details. We submit that a course that should be absolutely uniform for all sections of this great State could not be the best course for all sections of the State. Yet we believe that a far-reaching unification of courses is both desirable and possible. It is only in minor details that a good education for a child in Siskiyou county differs from a good education for a child in San Diego county. An examination of the courses of study now in use in the various counties and cities of the State shows less of fundamental difference among them than is sometimes supposed to exist. In two respects this State has especial advantages as regards the unification of courses of study. The same series of text-books is in use in all of our public schools; and the schools of each county are organized and conducted under a uniform curriculum, prepared in each case by the County Board.

However, it seemed best to your committee not to prepare at once even the outline of a course of study, and propose it for general adoption in the counties and cities of the State. We realize the fact that the course of study is not the real educator; the teachers in our schools are the real educators, and the course of study is intended to serve as a guide and help to them. To accomplish its true purpose, the course of study must be so inwrought with the educational thought and purpose of the teacher who is to administer it that teacher and curriculum shall together constitute a compact unit of educational influence. To impose upon the schools *ab extra* a course of study, no matter how good in itself, would be to encumber our educational David with the armor of Saul.

What is desirable is a course deeply rooted in the educational consciousness of the State—a course in process of healthy growth and not an article of manufacture. With these considerations in mind, the committee proposed a plan of procedure which should extend over several years; which should enlist the coöperation of all of the teachers of the State; the progress of which should be indicated by a series of annual reports, each one going further into the subject than did its predecessor. For the year 1895, the following definite plan was proposed for securing the coöperation of the teachers of the State: That all city and county superintendents of schools be invited to set apart at least one half-day of the teachers' institute for the year, to be devoted to the discussion of certain questions proposed by the committee; that the results of these discussions be summed up in some form of statement to be transmitted to the committee; and that previous to the assembling of the institute, and also following thereafter, all of the teachers be requested to devote as much time and thought as possible to the study of the problem proposed. Especial emphasis was laid on the importance of this thorough study on the part of the teachers, and a number of works were suggested for reading, especial emphasis being laid on the reports of the Committees of Ten and Fifteen. The teachers were moreover asked to observe carefully the children in the schools, with a view to a better determination of the actual effect and relative value of the several studies. Every effort has been made to secure the formation of intelligent opinion rather than the advocacy of preconceived notions.

As a guide to study and discussion for the year, the following seven questions were proposed:

1. Of the four great branches of study enumerated by the Com-

mittee of Ten, viz.: Language (including Reading, Writing, Language Lessons, and Grammar), Mathematics (including Number Work, Arithmetic, etc.), History (including Literature and History proper), and Natural Science, should all be studied in each of the elementary grades?

2. If any are to be omitted in any of the grades, which, and in what grades?

3. If all should be pursued, what proportion of time should be given in each grade to each of the four branches?

4. Can any one study be designated in each of the grades which should be regarded as the chief study of that grade?

5. Should any one of the four great branches receive a notable increase of attention over that which it now receives in the practice of the schools?

6. How far and in what way should the natural tastes and aptitudes of the children be taken into account in determining the work of any given grade?

7. How far and in what way should the work be determined by the prospective life-work of the children?

These questions and suggestions were all embodied in a circular addressed to school superintendents and county boards of education of the State of California. The closing paragraphs of this circular read as follows: "If the plan here proposed meets with your approval, may we ask you to present it to your teachers, and enlist their hearty coöperation in carrying it out? Will you kindly send us within one week of the close of your institute a copy of any statement or resolutions bearing upon the subject which your teachers may have adopted? We should be particularly pleased to have added to such expression of the views of your teachers an expression of your own views upon the subject. It is our purpose to embody the results of our inquiry in a preliminary report, to be presented at the meeting of the Council of Education next December, and to be made the basis of discussion for the year following. In counties and cities where the institute for the current year has already been held, we would suggest that the attention of the teachers be called to these questions, and preparation be made for their discussion in the next institute; but that in the meantime the superintendents and county boards send us an expression of their own views in response to these inquiries, to be embodied in the December report."

"The committee has not been authorized to incur so great an expense for printing and postage as would be involved in sending a copy of this circular to all the teachers of the State. We should esteem it a great favor if superintendents would undertake to send out from their own offices a circular embodying the whole or the chief part of the matter here presented."

Copies of this circular were sent also to a number of the leading educators of this State and of the East, and expressions of their views solicited.

The remainder of our report falls naturally into three divisions: I. A summary of the responses to this circular. II. Such discussion of the questions proposed as the committee is prepared to present. III. Definite proposals for the continuance of the inquiry.

I. SUMMARY OF RESPONSES TO THE COMMITTEE'S CIRCULAR.

From beyond the Mountains, we have received letters relating to the subject under consideration from Mr. J. M. Greenwood, Superintendent of Schools, Kansas City, Mo.; Prof. B. A. Hinsdale, of the University of Michigan; Prof. Charles A. McMurry, of the Illinois State Normal University; Principal Francis W. Parker, of the Cook County Normal School, Chicago; Principal E. A. Sheldon, of the State Normal School, Oswego, N. Y.; and Dr. Emerson E. White, of Columbus, O. We present herewith the text of these six letters:

SUPERINTENDENT GREENWOOD.

Mr. Greenwood writes as follows:

"I will reply to your questions seriatim:

"1. In the elementary grades all the four great branches should be studied, but not with equal stress. Small pupils can do little with the third group. The emphasis should fall on the first and second, and the fourth should be worked out chiefly through geography. History and geography are so closely related that they may be treated together, in part. What literature is introduced should go with reading.

"2. In the first, second, third, fourth, little can be done in either literature or history. The literature must be learned chiefly from the reading books in all common school grades, and history from easy biographical narration till the seventh year. In the grades below the sixth or seventh, I think it should be introduced incidentally rather than purposeful. Young children, as a rule, can read simple biography, but not history, to an advantage. A great danger to be avoided is that of introducing too many studies. Mental anarchy ensues in that case, and the learner's powers are weakened.

"3. The greatest amount of time should be given to the first group; the least to the third, and about equal time to arithmetic and geography.

"4. Yes; I think so.

"5. Only in exceptional or degenerate cases, should there be a difference. Besides, I would include in the course music and drawing.

"6. In reply to this question, I do not see how any one can tell at this stage of the learner's progress what will be best in a special line of work. I am clearly of the opinion that specialization should not take place, unless the learner is a genius or has a tendency toward insanity, below the third year in the high school."

PROFESSOR HINSDALE.

Professor Hinsdale writes as follows:

"I make such answers to the questions contained in the circular that you have sent me as the demands upon my time and energies permit. If I were to elaborate my ideas fully, I should not conclude until I had finished an xtended dissertation.

"1. I answer this question in the affirmative. It must be distinctly understood, however, that the work, in all the branches of study named, must be carefully adjusted to the capability of the pupil. This is a particularly important observation in respect to some of the studies or divisions of studies. Of course, formal history and formal natural science cannot be taught in the first grades, but the same kind of stuff that is afterwards used in the elaboration of formal history and formal science.

"2. This question has been answered by implication above.

"3. This question I am unable to answer in set terms. I have not worked out a careful distribution of the time of the school day, and cannot now undertake that problem. In general, the things that are taught in schools may be divided into two classes: The elementary school-arts, such as reading, penmanship, drawing, composition, the elements of arithmetic, and singing, and the studies proper, such as history, literature, science, and mathematics, properly so called. What I call 'the elementary school-arts' are instruments or tools, and my judgment, based on considerable observation and reflection, is strong to the effect that in the early grades they should be emphasized, though not by any means to the exclusion of reality or subjects proper.

"4. To some extent an answer to this question is involved in my answer to question 3. I believe in 'concentration' when I am allowed to define it, but have never been persuaded that the highly technical ideas propounded by some pedagogists in relation to that subject are true or useful. I am hardly prepared to answer the question in the affirmative as it stands. But a particular study should receive more attention in some grades, and in some grades less. Thus, in my view, the language-arts, speaking, reading, and composition (called, perhaps, 'language') should be very prominent in the beginning of the elementary school course.

"5. History and natural science would bear more emphasis in the elementary schools than they at present receive. I use the term 'history' in the sense of the question, including literature and history proper.

"6. The work of any and every grade should have primary reference to the natural tastes and aptitudes of children, using that language in a rational sense. It is not my observation, however, that children who fall into the earlier school grades really differ very widely in what may be called natural tastes and aptitudes. As a rule they are interested in about the same things. There is not in my view, therefore, any great difficulty in making up courses of study that shall meet these tastes and aptitudes. My observation is that any child who may properly be called normal can be interested, as a rule, in any work that we have any business to put in the lower elementary grades. In the decided sense of the terms, 'natural tastes and aptitudes' of children declare themselves later than the years with which we are here dealing. Of course some difference is observable at an early age in particular cases

"7. The prospective life work of children, using that language in a broad sense, ought to determine the work that is done in the elementary schools altogether. School education should be a fitting for life work. At the same time, children generally need the same preparation in their early school experience. Specialization of studies, based upon narrower ideas of prospective life work, should be deferred until the elements or fundamentals of education have been taught. All children in the United States, no matter where they live, need to study language, they need to study mathematics, they need to study history, they need to study natural science, and their prospective differences of life work are not such as to require or to justify specialization of instruction until a considerably advanced stage has been reached in the schools. I am in favor of introducing Latin as an elective into the grades as early as the seventh year, and possibly some other work that is now done in high schools, provided it can be done without friction. Beyond that I see no necessity for specialization in studies below the high school, as growing out of question 7."

PROFESSOR McMURRY.

Professor McMurry's communication is as follows:

"The following answers are submitted to the seven questions in the circular:

"1. Yes.

"2. In the lower grades the studies are not so distinctly isolated from each other. The studies differentiate themselves more and more from each other as we advance in the grades. In the first and second grades it is more difficult to lay out a definite course of lessons in natural science and literature as clearly distinguished from the other studies, than in higher grades. It may be well to omit number work in the first half of the first grade, although some number exercises may spring up incidental to the other studies.

"3. The following division of time among the studies is suggested·

Reading. One recitation daily.
Arithmetic. One recitation daily.
Natural Science. One recitation on alternate days.
Literature or History. One recitation on alternate days.
Language lessons and Grammar on alternate days.
Geography on alternate days (3d, 4th, 5th, 6th, and 7th grades).
Writing on alternate days.
Drawing on alternate days.

"This programme may be modified somewhat in the primary grades and in the grammar grades, but it serves for a general average.

"4. No. The principal studies seem to hold about the same relative importance throughout all the grades.

"5. Yes. History and Literature should find a much more abundant use in our common schools, especially the best of American writers and historical narratives. This should be true both in the reading lessons and in history and literature lessons in all the grades.

"Natural Science also should be taught more systematically according to definite outlines in every grade. As yet, however, no well defined course in Natural Science studies has been worked out for the use of teachers. In order to give these studies their proper time and place in the school programme, two things will be necessary; first, to curtail the time now given to some of the other studies; second, to reduce several of the studies to half time with recitations on alternate days.

"6. So far as children generally show certain natural tastes and aptitudes at a given age, the materials of instruction should be adapted to these conditions. We should give the children in any grade instruction in which they can take a strong and lively interest. The theory of the Culture Epochs suggests a criterion with which to determine the suitableness of materials for any given age.

"7. The course of study in the common schools through the eight grades should not be influenced by the particular occupation or life work which awaits them. In the common schools children should be taught those things of universal value to all, no matter what their life business may prove to be."

COLONEL PARKER.

The following answers have been received from Principal F. W. Parker:

"1. All the branches here enumerated should be used as means of developing the character of children, from the first to the eighth grade inclusive.

"2. See answer to first question.

"3. The only possible guide to regulate the proportion of time would be found in the effect of the subjects upon the lives of the children. This question, then, can only be answered by long and careful application of all the subjects.

"4. We do not, at present, know enough of the effect of the different subjects to assign any one study the most prominent place. All we really study is life, and the laws of life. We study man and nature, and we must have far more experience than at present to know the effect of these two main branches of one subject, and to decide which has the strongest influence in the development of character.

"5. The central or main subjects may be designated, as: geography, geology, meteorology, mineralogy, physics and chemistry, botany, zoölogy, anthropology, ethnology and history. Reading, observation and hearing languages, are *processes of thinking*, and therefore, in this sense, not subjects of thought, but ways of thinking. Mathematics, for instance, form, geometry and number, are modes of judgment. These modes of judgment must be properly exercised by attention to the central subjects. The modes of expression are not subjects in themselves; they are, on the intellectual side, means of enhancing thought power, and on the moral side, of developing the motive in the child. The great resources, then, for study, are found in the central subjects, and all other subjects are means to an end. Literature cannot be regarded as a subject in itself; it is a means of thinking.

"6. Psychology, which gives us a knowledge of a being, including nature, tastes and aptitudes, must in itself determine the subjects to be presented, and the direction of these subjects; for instance, a child is a social animal, and the direction of all mental and moral action must be towards the organization of society. We have, then, three things, the end and aim of education, or organization of society, the being that moves toward that end,—the child,—and the central subjects which influence that movement.

"7. The highest life work of all human beings is the organization of community life, and this should be the end and aim of all education. Whatever comes in as a factor in the movement of community life to a higher level, should be put into the school.

"In conclusion, all education must be thoroughly reformed, if not revolutionized, in the direction of the organization of society. Here we find a direct purpose for all mental, moral and physical action of the children, and under this ideal we are to study education. A school is society shaping itself."

DR. SHELDON.

The following letter has been received from Dr. Sheldon:

"I have your letter of the 15th inst. In answer I would say that we have been studying this subject of a course of study for the elementary grades in our own faculty for the last three years. We have come to some conclusions in regard to some things, and hope before long to express our conclusions in published form. The only doubt about it is whether when we get to the end we may not change our minds and want to revise the whole thing, a condition that is very likely to exist. I am very sure that any statement we may publish will be subject to frequent revision. I will state as briefly as possible my own idea as to the proper grouping of subjects in any well arranged course of study.

"I believe the object of all study should be to know God and obey Him. How can we know God? By studying Him through His works. What are His works? We have but two groups of created objects, so far as I can understand, one a material group, and the other immaterial. The material group includes the animal, vegetable and mineral kingdoms. The immaterial group—I hesitate what to say, but am sure that this includes human souls. Beyond this I am in some doubt, but for the purpose in hand this grouping will aid us. In studying material objects we consider the form, size and relation of the objects studied. These constitute the elements of geometry. We also get ideas of color, weight, motion and the general qualities of the objects studied. In these we have the elements of physics and chemistry, and the arts. We gain also the idea of number, which is the foundation of arithmetic and algebra. We consider the location, an important element in geography. In sound we have the elements of music.

"In psychology, the spiritual side of creation, we study the motives, the feelings, the emotions, the actions, the movements of the human soul. In studying history and literature we are studying in this line. This gives us, as you see, two groups of study; one, the material objects of God's creation, the other the immaterial objects. These may be properly termed thought subjects. Having ideas which we gain from these objects we wish to express them. For this purpose we employ what we term language. Now, language may be arranged in four groups.

"1st. That which expresses through the body, or pantomime, which includes gesture and elocution.

"2nd. Signs and symbols, as used in mathematics.

"3rd. We express through art, as in drawing, painting, modeling, sculpture, music.

"4th. By oral and written expression, as in reading, writing, spelling, rhetoric, etc.

"This you will see arranges all our studies in three great groups; first, the study of material objects; second, immaterial objects; and third, the language which we use in the expression of ideas gained in the study of these objects. If I am right in the arrangements I have indicated, then, of course, all these subjects must be carried on together from the very beginning in our schools. Nothing can be left out in any part of the course. The thought studies, of course, come first, and the expression follows naturally. At the beginning of the course I see no necessity for making the third, or language group, a special object of study. The children get ideas from their studies in science and literature, and simply give expression to those ideas. Their education in language comes from their effort to express themselves. I would therefore at the beginning of the course give little or no attention to language studies, as such. I would simply allow the children to express themselves in the most natural way. They express themselves in bodily action, in drawing, in painting, and in oral speech; and I would allow them to freely use these forms of expression, feeling confident that in their use they would get facility after awhile. It may be best, I think it is, after a little, to take some of the expressive subjects as branches of study for the purpose of giving greater facility of expression. I think this is particularly true in number. There is hardly sufficient opportunity for exercise in number in our main lines of thought work to give that readiness and accuracy of expression that is necessary. When they get out into life, there must be an almost automatic readiness to respond in mathematical calculations and expressions. Such readiness, I believe, would not be acquired without some special drill. I think, however, the inclination is to begin this study too early in the course. I would allow the expression to grow with the children as they find occasion to use this form of language, as, for instance, in drawing, in pantomime, and oral speech. Exactly the time when it is best to begin this special study of mathematical expression I am undecided, except to say, that I think it ought not to come into the first year of the primary school. The reading, I believe, is begun too early, also. The first step is to gain ability to use the senses quickly and accurately, and to give ready expression to the ideas gained in the use of the senses. This is more important to the child than it is to learn to read. It is, in fact, better that he should get his ideas from the study of the real objects, than to get them from the printed page. There is more education in it. For this reason I would put off the reading work to a later date. If you ask when I would have them begin to read, I cannot tell you. This must depend something upon the advantages of the children, upon their previous training, upon their capabilities. I think, however, I would not begin during the first five months of the child's school life. The drawing, I believe, should begin with the oral expression. Later, certainly not within the first year, they may begin to write. Writing is more difficult than drawing; drawing is more natural to children. The drawing I would have with color, with a brush, put on in a free way. Instruction in drawing, that is in principles or methods of work, ought not to be allowed to interfere with the freedom of the children in expressing themselves. If formal instruction were given, it would be sure to interfere. I believe such formal instruction should not be given at any rate during the first three years of the children's school life. I am not sure as to the best time to begin. In spelling I would never have any formal instruction. They spell as they write, only be careful that they never spell words incorrectly.

"Geography includes all the sciences, and in all this nature study and literature and history we are preparing for the more formal study of geography, and it should come later in the course. If you ask me when to take it up, I must answer as in the other cases—I do not know. This depends upon so many conditions that I could only answer knowing such conditions. I send you inclosed a sort of tabular view of the grouping I have indicated.

"I realize that in this brief way I have very imperfectly expressed my own ideas in regard to this great subject. I am sure you will consider it very unsatisfactory. It is unsatisfactory to myself, but from it perhaps you will get some idea as to the thought that is in my own mind in regard to the proper grouping of studies. I am very glad to contribute in any small degree to the great work you are doing in California in the department of education. I think you are doing more than any other State in the Union. We all look to you for the best that is being done in educational work. I trust you will do me the kindness to send me, from time to time, the reports that may be published in regard to your proceedings. Since my visit to California, my interest in your great State has been highly augmented, and I am especially interested in your educational movements. I hope I may be able to keep in touch with them. Let us both give and take."

DR. WHITE.

Dr. E. E. White writes as follows :

"I am pleased to learn that the State Council of Education of California has undertaken so thorough an investigation of the course of study for elementary schools, but may I express my surprise that this investigation is to be put upon the imperfect basis of the report of the Committee of Ten—a committee not instructed to investigate elementary instruction, and, I may add, a committee not well qualified to make a guiding report upon the subject? The *elementary* course of instruction is the weak feature of this suggestive report. Much of it I cannot accept. I will send you in a few days a review of the portion relating to arithmetic.

"The enumeration of the branches that should constitute the elementary course is obviously *defective*. It does not, for example, include drawing or manual construction of any kind, and is silent respecting instruction in *duty and manners!* The attempt to make history include literature proper, and natural science geography, is an illustration of the confusion into which the elementary studies are thrown by the attempt to divide them into *four branches*.

"It is impossible for me to answer the committee's questions intelligently on the basis proposed. What is meant by *literature as a branch of history?* Why does not reading more properly include literature? What are the children to read? Does not reading include *what is read?* Again, what is meant by 'grammar'? If the science of language, or technical grammar, is meant, it clearly does not belong *below* the seventh school year.

"Were I to discuss the questions proposed, I should wish to make a somewhat different classification of the elementary branches. I should wish to use terms that have a definite and well-understood meaning. I would call a spade a spade, and not a machine.

"But let me give a *hint* on several of the questions.

"1 and 2. Grammar proper should not be taught in the first six years. The time for language in these grades should be devoted to the *art* of language, and the training should be *synthetic.* History *proper* has no place in the first years of the course. I do not call stories, myths, and biographies (such as are told children) history. Lessons on plants and animals (facts of observation) should be given early; but are these *facts,* as taught the first three years of school, natural *science?* Have the Indians a knowledge of the natural *sciences?* What is the distinction between *common* knowledge (the result of common observation) and *scientific* knowledge? What is meant by the *scientific phase* of school instruction?

"You see that we must define our terms before we attempt to make statements as a *basis of pedagogy.* The present tendency to use vague, comprehensive words is confusing pedagogical discussion.

"3. What is said above applies to this question. Language and mathematics, as defined, should be taught in all grades. The terms 'History' and 'Natural Science' are too indefinite, as here used. We judge that the proportion of time will vary in the different grades.

"4. If by *'chief'* study is meant the study that receives most time and attention, clearly language, as defined, should be made the chief study. If by 'chief' is meant central and *inclusive,* no one of the elementary branches is in this sense a 'chief study.'

"5. I am inclined to think that nature studies, not necessarily natural *science,* should receive an increase of attention; also history and literature in the proper grades. But the studies just now needing special emphasis are 'morals and manners' and the art studies—not included in the 'four great branches.' The schools should put character before learning.

"6. The natural tastes and aptitudes of children *as a class* should, of course, be taken into account in determining the work of each grade. 'School instruction, both in matter and method, should be adapted to the capability of the learner,' is a sound principle of pedagogy. The learner's capability includes natural aptitude and taste; but the question may refer to those *individual* aptitudes and tastes in which pupils differ. I know of but one way to determine a child's aptitude and taste for a given study, and that is to teach him at least its elements. A child's taste for anything depends somewhat on his *knowledge* of that thing. Of course, a child can show neither taste nor aptitude for that of which he is entirely ignorant. In brief, a child's tastes and aptitudes cannot be divined *de novo.* His dislike for a study that he is pursuing, may be due entirely to his approach to it or the manner in which he is taught. In my judgment, there is a large amount of nonsense current on the following of the individual tastes and aptitudes of young pupils. 'If the blind lead the blind,' where will both fall? It is vastly more important to know the *common* tastes and aptitudes of children in school instruction than to know their individual tastes and aptitudes which are changing from term to term. No course or method of instruction can be based on the *differences* of pupils in the same class or grade. These differences are met by modifications or adaptations of the general method to the individual pupil.

"7. The work of the school should be chiefly determined by the fact that its chief end is manhood and womanhood. Duty is the great life-work of man. School instruction should not be determined by the prospective pursuits or occupations, and, for one good reason, no one can possibly guess the future trade or pursuit of a young child. School training should be 'an apprenticeship in right living,' as the French Programme puts it, and a *general preparation* for all pursuits and callings. You do not wish me to give an opinion on the extent to which the State may provide *special* schools to teach given trades. I take it that the question relates to *general* education—the education provided for all youth.

"Please excuse any dogmatism that may appear in the above answers. Opinions, if real opinions, are liable to be positive, if not dogmatic."

IN CALIFORNIA.

The tables given below summarize expressions of opinion relative to the elementary course of study, which have come to the committee in the following forms:

a. Resolutions adopted at the institutes of the following counties: Humboldt, Kern, Sacramento, San Joaquin, San Luis Obispo, Santa Clara, Santa Cruz, Stanislaus, Tehama;

b. A tabulated summary of the views of 100 teachers of Monterey county, prepared by Mr. J. B. Hickman;

c. A tabulated summary of the views of 215 teachers of the city of Los Angeles, prepared by Mr. W. O. Lowe;

d. Letters from the following individuals:

From Oakland: Superintendent J. W. McClymonds; Mrs. M. J. Ayres, Mrs. Sarah B. Byrod, Misses M. Burrows, Bertha Feibush, C. N. Gibson, C. E. Reed, Flora R. Smyth, Stella G. Trask, and A. L. Zabel, of the Clawson school; Miss H. M. Mullen, of the Harrison school; Miss A. F. Aldrich, of the Lafayette school; Miss Elizabeth Powell, of the Grant school; Mrs. Ellen Gibbs, of the Garfield school.

From San Rafael: Miss McAllister.

From the State Normal School, Los Angeles, Dr. Edw. T. Pierce.

From the University of California: Mr. Frank Dunn.

As might be expected, the reports from different quarters vary considerably in the form in which they are presented. Some of these differences necessarily appear in the summary as here given. Very few of the reports gave direct and unqualified answers to the seven questions asked. The qualifications and explanations added much to the value of the reports; they added, too, to the difficulty of tabulation. The attempt has been made to incorporate into the tables every idea explicitly set down in the material at hand. A word or two of caution in regard to the interpretation of the tables seems necessary.

1. As noted above, some of the respondents have qualified their answers in various ways; for instance, by a change in the definition of the terms used in Question 1.

2. It is possible, in some cases almost certain, that qualifications of replies, similar to those which some have explicitly stated, existed in the minds of respondents who have not expressed them. The tables summarize the received replies at their face value.

3. Opinions not really at variance may appear to be so, because they have been expressed by persons laboring under very different conditions. In fact, it will be impossible to understand fully any of the answers to Question 5 without knowing the exact historical view upon which it is based.

4. Several respondents have expressly mentioned geography. Some classify it with the History group, others with the Natural Science. Doubtless all from whom replies have been received had geography in mind; but in cases where it is not mentioned, it is impossible to tell just what place has been assigned to this branch. The form of the question proposed was not such as to obviate this ambiguity.

5. It is quite evident from the tables that the allotment of more time to one subject than to another is not always intended to imply that the former possesses greater educational value than the latter.

6. Some respondents replied to only a part of the questions. Any attempt at averaging replies on the basis of the total number of replies as given above would, accordingly, be misleading.

7. It goes without saying that the committee makes no attempt to settle any question by a majority vote. This summary has a value, however, as indicating the present drift of educational opinion in the State.

The questions of the committee are answered as follows:

QUESTION 1.

Yes: Humboldt, Kern, Sacramento, San Joaquin, San Luis Obispo, Santa Cruz, Stanislaus, and Tehama counties; 45 per cent. of the teachers of Los Angeles; 60 teachers of Monterey county; Ayres, Burrows, Byrod, Dunn, Gibbs, Gibson (as far as possible), McAllister, McClymonds Pierce, Reed, Zabel.

QUESTION 2.

Technical grammar omitted in first six years: San Luis Obispo county; McAllister.

Grammar omitted in all elementary grades: Aldrich.

All but language omitted in first grade: 1½ per cent., Los Angeles.

Mathematics omitted from the first grade: 3, Monterey county; Aldrich (also from half of second grade), Pierce;—from grades two to five, seven, and eight: each one teacher of Monterey county.

Number omitted from first grade: 44 per cent., Los Angeles; Feibush, Mullen, Powell, Trask (may be omitted without disadvantage).

Number from first and second grades: 8 per cent., Los Angeles; Smyth.

Abstract number work from the first two years: Gibbs.

History from the first grade: 8 per cent., Los Angeles; 8, Monterey county; Aldrich (also first half of second grade), Powell.

History from the first and second grades: 4 per cent., Los Angeles; Powell;—from the first three grades: 10 per cent., Los Angeles.

History (proper) from all primary grades: Mullen;—from the first four grades: 5 per cent., Los Angeles;—from the first five grades: 5 per cent., Los Angeles;—from the first seven grades: 2 per cent., Los Angeles.

In addition to those already enumerated, teachers of Monterey county would omit History in specified single grades as follows: second grade, 7; third grade, 5; fourth grade, 2; fifth grade, 1.

Natural Science from the first grade: 3 per cent., Los Angeles; 7, Monterey county;—from the second grade: 24, Monterey county;—from the third grade: 21, Monterey county;—from the first three grades: 4 per cent., Los Angeles;—from the fourth grade: 18, Monterey county;—from the fifth grade: 7, Monterey county ·—from the first five grades: 5½ per cent., Los Angeles.

QUESTION 3.

Carefully prepared tables of time allotment have been sent in, both by counties and by individual correspondents. It would be a very difficult matter to sum up all of these tables in one, and very little would be gained from such a summary. We select, accordingly, two examples, which may serve as representatives of the whole number. The first is that prepared by the Santa Cruz County Institute:

	Primary Grade. 1st, 2nd, 3rd Yrs.	Intermediate. 4th, 5th, 6th Yrs.	Grammar. 7th, 8th, 9th Yrs.
Language	½ of the time	⅓ of the time	¼ of the time
Mathematics	⅙ "	¼ "	¼ "
History	⅙ "	⅙ "	¼ "
Science	⅙ "	¼ "	¼ "

The second was prepared by the joint institute of the city and county of Sacramento. The numbers represent the per cent. of the whole time given to the group of studies indicated:

GRADE.	LANGUAGE.	HISTORY, (including Literature).	ARITHMETIC. (Numbers).	NATURAL SCIENCE, (including Geography).
1	85	5	5	5
2	50	20	15	15
3	50	15	25	10
4 and 5	50	15	20	15
6 and 7	40	15	25	20
8 and 9	35	20	25	20

The Institute of Kern county did not think it advisable to make any specific allotment of time, but presented suggestions regarding the proper treatment of Nature Studies, Mathematics, and History.

The Institute of San Joaquin county concurred in the main with the tabulated apportionment of time given in the report of the Committee of Fifteen. The points of difference are set forth in a table published, together with the remainder of the report of the same institute, in the *Pacific Educational Journal* for December, 1895.

QUESTION 4.

No: Kern, San Joaquin, Santa Cruz, and Stanislaus counties; 16 per cent., Los Angeles; Dunn, Gibbs, Trask.

None in the ninth grade: Tehama county.

None in the last four grades: Santa Clara county.

Language throughout the grades: Sacramento and San Luis Obispo counties; 55 per cent., Los Angeles; 14, Monterey county; Aldrich, McClymonds, Pierce.

Language in the first grade: Smyth;—in the first three grades: 9 per cent., Los Angeles;—in the lower grades: Ayres, Byrod;—in the primary grades: Feibush;—in the first four grades: Burrows, Zabel;—in the first five grades: Santa Clara and Tehama counties;—in the first six grades: Gibson;—in the first two grades, Language, in the grades above, Language with Literature: Mullen.

Reading in the first and second grades: Powell;—in the second grade: Smyth;—in the first four years: Humboldt county;—in the primary grades: 13½ per cent., Los Angeles.

Language and arithmetic throughout the grades: 2½ per cent. Los Angeles.

Mathematics in the third and fourth grades; Reed;—in the sixth and seventh grades: Tehama county;—in the ninth grade: Palmer.

Number in the fourth and fifth grades: 9 per cent., Los Angeles.

Arithmetic in the fifth, sixth, and seventh grades: Humboldt county.

History in the last four years: McAllister;—in the eighth grade: Tehama county.

Literature in grades 8 to 10: Humboldt county;—in the seventh and eighth grades: 9 per cent., Los Angeles; Gibson;—in the eighth grade: Smyth.

Natural Science in the first five years: McAllister;—in grades five to eight: Zabel.

Science and History coördinated: Palmer.

QUESTION 5.

Yes: 3 per cent., Los Angeles.

None: 13 per cent., Los Angeles; Byrod, Powell, Trask.

Language: Sacramento, San Luis Obispo, and Santa Cruz counties; 55 per cent., Los Angeles; 18, Monterey county; Ayres, Gibson, Pierce.

Mathematics: 4, Monterey county; Dunn.

Mental Arithmetic: 1½ per cent., Los Angeles.

History: Humboldt, Kern, Sacramento, San Joaquin, Santa Cruz, and Stanislaus counties; 9½ per cent., Los Angeles; 8. Monterey county; Dunn, McAllister.

Literature: 3½ per cent., Los Angeles; Pierce

Geography: 1 per cent., Los Angeles.

Reading: 6 per cent., Los Angeles. Oral Reading: Mullen.

Natural Science: Humboldt, Kern, San Joaquin, San Luis Obispo, Santa Cruz, Stanislaus, and Tehama counties; 9½ per cent., Los Angeles; 37, Monterey county; Aldrich, Burrows, Dunn, McAllister, McClymonds, Smyth, Zabel.

Observation work in nature study: Gibbs.

QUESTION 6.

Yes: San Joaquin and Stanislaus counties; 9 per cent., Los Angeles; (as far as possible, 3 per cent., Los Angeles); 19, Monterey county; Aldrich, McAllister.

Yes, if the question means by tastes and aptitudes, those peculiar mental qualities which, according to the laws of mental development, characterize children's mental attitude at various stages: Sacramento and Santa Cruz counties; 6 per cent., Los Angeles; Ayres, Dunn, McClymonds, Reed.

No: Humboldt (except in rare cases of special talent), Kern (special tastes to be encouraged, but not to the detriment of other work), and Tehama counties; 30 per cent., Los Angeles (in lower grades); 1 per cent., Los Angeles (except in high school work); 48, Monterey county; Burrows, Byrod (under class system), Gibson, Mullen (under the system of a single course of study for an entire city), Powell and Trask (under class system), Zabel (except in cases of rare special ability).

QUESTION 7.

Yes: 19 per cent., Los Angeles; 22, Monterey county (in last two years, 2, Monterey county); Ayres, Byrod, Smyth.

Yes, if life-work means duty as a citizen: Kern, San Joaquin, San Luis Obispo, and Santa Cruz counties; Dunn, Trask.

No: Sacramento and Tehama counties; 60 per cent., Los Angeles (in first three grades, 13 per cent., Los Angeles); 55, Monterey county; Burrows, Feibush, Gibson, McAllister, McClymonds, Pierce, Zabel.

No, if life-work means some particular trade or profession: Kern, San Joaquin, and Santa Cruz counties; Dunn, Trask.

Work should be as practical as possible: 8 per cent., Los Angeles.

The environment of the county should determine the course of study: Humboldt county.

Your committee is aware that much careful work has been devoted to this subject during the year, which is not represented in this tabular statement. A valuable report, prepared by the faculty of the State Normal School at San José, reached the committee too late to receive the extended notice which it deserved. Printed copies of this report have been issued. It will repay careful reading. Resolutions were prepared in the county institute of Lake county, but have not yet reached the committee; reports received from Calaveras, Fresno, and Solano counties are omitted from the tables for the reason that their form does not lend itself to tabular presentation; the first report received, a personal letter from a member of a county board in the northern part of the

State, was unfortunately lost before the work of tabulation began; a letter received from Principal F. L. Burk, of Santa Rosa, referred to elsewhere in this report, discusses the general subject rather than the questions in detail; and letters received from ten teachers in the Tompkins school, Oakland, relate chiefly to a particular grade each, and so do not readily admit of tabulation in the statement as submitted above. The committee's circular was reprinted, either as a whole or in part, in the following counties: Alameda, Humboldt, Kern, Sacramento, San Joaquin, Santa Clara, Tehama. Mimeograph copies were prepared and sent to all of the teachers in San Rafael. Printed reports were issued after the institute in Humboldt and Santa Cruz counties. Doubtless other work of value along similar lines has been done which has not come to the knowledge of the committee.

II. DISCUSSION OF THE QUESTIONS PROPOSED.

Of the questions proposed by the committee, the most fundamental are those numbered 6 and 7. It is evident from the answers sent in to the committee that these questions have been variously interpreted, and a restatement seems desirable.

It was not the intention of the committee that these questions should relate to individual differences among pupils. They were meant to be of general application, having to do with those broad psychological characteristics in which all children share, and those broad social conditions to which all are, in divers ways and varying degrees, subject. The question of the weight to be attached to individual differences may reasonably receive separate consideration.

Your committee would accordingly propose the following revised form of questions 6 and 7:

6. How far and in what ways should the work of the several grades be determined by the prevailing tastes and aptitudes of children of the age commonly found in each of those grades?

7. How far and in what ways should the work of the several grades be determined by the need of preparation for the duties of life in human society?

We would also propose the following additional questions:

8. Are there other general principles which should have influence in the determination of the course of study?

9. How far and in what ways should provision be made for the recognition of individual differences among pupils?

In the questions as originally proposed by the committee, these fundamental inquiries were placed at the end of the list. This arrangement was intentional. We believed that in the consideration of the more immediately practical questions, Nos. 1 to 5 inclusive, thoughtful teachers would become impressed with the fact that their conclusions throughout depended upon the point of view; and that they would be the more disposed for that reason to subject their own point of view to serious scrutiny. In this we have not been disappointed. The discussions in several of the teachers' institutes and elsewhere have revealed a growing disposition to inquire into the reasons underlying the opinions expressed.

If we mistake not, current discussions of the school curriculum reflect now chiefly the one, now the other, of the two general views of education referred to in questions 6 and 7 respectively. The one view is chiefly psychological. It would determine the course of study by what it finds within the child. The other is chiefly sociological. It would determine the course by considerations from without. On the one hand, Plato said long ago, "The purpose of education is to give to the body and to the soul all the beauty and all the perfection of which they are capable." On the other hand, we have this from Milton: "I call therefore a complete and generous education that which fits a man to perform justly, skillfully, and magnanimously all the offices, both private and public, of peace and war." In more recent times, we have the familiar definition of Stein: "Education is the harmonious and equable evolution of the human faculties by a method founded upon the nature of the mind for developing all the faculties of the soul, for stirring up and nourishing all the principles of life, while shunning all one-sided culture and taking account of the sentiments on which the strength and worth of men depend;" and still more recently we find Joseph Payne saying, "The science of education is a branch of psychology." On the other hand, Alfred Fouillée has said, "The only object of instruction should be to awaken aptitudes, and never to respond to aptitudes supposed to exist;" and the Committee of Fifteen: "Your committee is of the opinion that psychology of both kinds, physiological and introspective, can hold only a subordinate place in the settlement of questions relating to the correlation of studies. The branches to be studied, and the extent to which they are studied, will be determined mainly by the demands of one's civilization. These will prescribe what is most useful to make the individual acquainted with physical nature and with human nature so as to fit him as an individual to perform his duties in the several institutions—family, civil society, the state, and the Church. But next after this, psychology will furnish important considerations that will largely determine the methods of instruction, the order of taking up the several topics so as to adapt the school work to the growth of the pupil's capacity, and the amount of work so as not to overtax his powers by too much, or arrest the development of strength by too little. A vast number of subordinate details belonging to the pathology of education, such as the hygienic features of school architecture and furniture, programmes, the length of study hours and of class exercises, recreation, and bodily reactions against mental effort, will be finally settled by scientific experiment in the department of physiological psychology."

It appears that we have before us two widely divergent views, the practical consequences of which are direct and important. Is, then, the course of study to be shaped with reference to the all-round, harmonious development of powers which we find in germ in every normal child, and which we find coming into prominence in a more or less regular sequence through the period of growth; and if so, what principle shall determine wherein such "all-roundness" and "harmoniousness" consist? Or is the course to be shaped with reference to preparation for life in the institutions of society—preparation for self-support, intelligent obedience to law, patriotic devotion to the common weal, effective coöperation with one's fellows in the varied relations of life?

Doubtless both considerations must be taken into account; but how are the two to be adjusted to each other? This is a problem calling for thoughtful study, and we commend it to the teachers of the State as a subject for their investigation and discussion during the coming year. The paragraph quoted from the report of the Committee of Fifteen is highly suggestive and stimulating, and will repay extended consideration. We believe, moreover, that these questions will suggest the need of a more minute examination of the psychology of development than has yet been undertaken, as well as a more critical inquiry into the bearing of recent investigations in the domain of social science.

The classification of studies adopted by your committee agrees in the main with that employed by the Committee of Ten. We were influenced in the selection of this particular scheme of classification by the following considerations: Some classification seemed necessary in order to obviate the danger that the discussion would become hopelessly entangled in the multitude of subjects entering into the ordinary school course. A general survey could be obtained only by grouping subjects under a few great heads. The teachers of the State are already somewhat familiar with the grouping employed by the Committee of Ten, and its influence has been felt in the arrangement of recent courses in some of the counties. This grouping is, moreover, a good one, and brings into prominence some of the most essential relationships between the several studies. The most serious objection to the scheme, in the judgment of your committee, is the fact that it does not adequately take into account an important group of subjects having to do with the expressive and constructive aspects of the child's activity. Drawing, music, and various forms of manual constructiveness, are widely recognized as entitled to an honorable place in the curriculum of the lower schools. Many schools, however, have as yet found no regular place for these subjects in their programmes. It seemed best to your committee to begin with the comparatively simple scheme of the Committee of Ten, which embraces the subjects taught in all of the schools; but in postponing to another report the consideration of other highly important branches, we would not be understood as in any degree prejudicing their claim to general recognition.

It will be observed that in one important particular the classification here adopted varies from that found in the report of the Committee of Ten. In that report, studies in Literature are brought under the heading of Language. In the questions proposed by this committee, studies in Literature are grouped with those in History. The reasons for this change may be briefly stated. It emphasizes the close connection between Literature and History in the lower grades. Moreover, it makes a sharper division between what we may call the content studies on the one hand and the more formal studies on the other. It is evident that no absolute distinction can be made between "formal" studies and "content" studies; but in the classification here adopted it will be generally agreed that the groups of Language and Mathematics are predominantly formal in their character, and the groups of History and Natural Science include studies pursued chiefly for the sake of content.

This classification differs also from that of the Committee of Fifteen in two or three particulars, chiefly in that it fails to assign an independent place to Geography. Geography may be regarded as belonging in part to Natural Science and in part to History. The current view of the study places it mainly in the category of Natural Science. We may regard it provisionally as belonging to that group, and postpone more extended discussion of the subject to another report.

The older curriculum, represented by the three R's,—Reading, Writing and Reckoning,—belonged almost wholly to the formal side of the classification we have adopted. The education provided by that curriculum was highly practical, in that it devoted attention chiefly to the mastery of studies that might serve as tools for the later acquisition of knowledge. It had, moreover, a high disciplinary value in that the subjects, being intrinsically of minor interest, made large demands upon the exercise of voluntary or forced attention on the part of the learners. In recent years strong protests have arisen against this earlier curriculum because of its barrenness of ideas and its lack of far-reaching and fruitful interest. A reaction has come about which consists chiefly in the introduction of interesting and instructive material drawn from Literature, History, and Natural Science. The center of gravity of the work of the elementary schools has been shifted, so to speak, from the side of the more formal studies to the side of the content studies. This change has perhaps been more theoretical than practical, yet it has undoubtedly exercised a profound influence upon the practice of the schools. In the consideration of the first five questions proposed by your committee, we are concerned chiefly with the proper proportionate adjustment of the work in these four groups of subjects; and more especially with the consideration of the relative place of the formal and the informational groups.

It is to be observed that the complaint of the over-loading of the curriculum, which has become general in recent years, is largely due to this movement toward the introduction into the course of much useful and interesting knowledge. An important practical difference between the two sides of the course has come to light. It has been seen that the choice of topics is a much more difficult matter on the side of content than on the formal side. In the pursuit of the formal studies, certain kinds of skill are to be acquired, certain processes to be mastered, a certain training of the powers of thought is to be secured. These things are relatively definite, and the serious questions which arise relate chiefly to minor details. Children must learn to read, to write, to spell, to pronounce correctly and distinctly, to express themselves with grammatical propriety, to understand the relations of the different parts of the sentence one to another; they must learn to add, subtract, multiply, and divide, to use common and decimal fractions, and to understand the reasons for some of the more advanced processes of arithmetic. When we come, on the other hand, to the arrangement of studies in Literature and in Natural Science, a wide range of possibilities is open. There is so much which children should know, the knowledge of which is distinctly advantageous, that it seems impossible to frame a satisfactory course without making it almost encyclopedic in its character. Experience and reason show that the course cannot be made encyclopedic. The ideal of All Knowledge, so fondly cherished by Comenius, cannot be attained in the elementary schools. The true wisdom of the framers of courses of study on this side must lie in the wise choice of materials; and the determination of the principles which should govern such choice is one of the ~~most~~ important problems involved in the shaping of a course of study. Certain principles of choice will be suggested in a later portion of this report.

Attention may be called to another marked difference between the two sides of the course of study. While it is possible on the more formal side to secure relative perfection of attainment on the part of the pupils, and the degree of excellence attained may be readily tested; the chief value of the studies of the other groups is found in the fact that they exercise a far-reaching and often impalpable influence upon the thought and sentiments of the learners. The formal studies can be pursued under pressure, and in them facility, quickness, and perfect accuracy can be sought; in studies in nature and literature and history on the contrary, the loving and eager pursuit of the subject on the part of the children is to be chiefly desired. Strict accuracy has its place here, too, without doubt; but it is not the chief desideratum. Particularly in the primary grades, the main care of the teacher in respect to these branches must be to bring the children into sympathetic association with the things studied. Time must be allowed for the growth of living appreciation. Here "the husbandman waiteth for the precious fruit of the earth, and hath long patience for it, until he receive the early and latter rain."

We have been concerned thus far with the general characteristics of the two great divisions of the course of study, with reference to both primary and grammar grades of the elementary school. We may pass now to a more particular examination of the several groups of studies, with especial reference to the primary grades. The primary schools of California contain sometimes four, and sometimes five or more grades, including the "receiving class." The statistics in the hands of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction seem to indicate that one-half of the pupils who enter our public schools drop out before the grammar grades are reached. The public good demands that this fact be taken into account in shaping the course of study. The work must be arranged with reference to securing a fair degree of completeness before the point is reached at which a majority of the pupils are no longer under instruction. Doubtless a course can be so constructed that the needs of this majority can be met without serious disadvantage to the more promising minority. Besides, under a good course of study in the hands of good teachers, the average age at which pupils leave school can be steadily raised from year to year. But the question as to what will be most advantageous to those who take only the abbreviated course must be fairly met.

Attempting to sum up the chief services which the primary school should render to its pupils, we may present the case somewhat as follows: 1. In the first place and chiefly, the children should be taught and trained in the exercise of certain moral virtues. They should learn to be obedient, orderly, self-respecting, cleanly, and industrious. What is perhaps of still more importance, they should be led as far as may be to take a lively interest in some of the better things of life. To give them a love for school, and still more a love for knowledge, and to quicken their individual aspirations after better things, should be among the chief endeavors of the teachers in the earlier grades. 2. They should be given command of the tools on which future progress depends. In other words, they should be taught to read, to write, and to reckon. These tools are not only necessary if they would make any progress by themselves after leaving school, or indeed if they would discharge the mere routine duties of citizenship; but are also necessary to any effective prosecution of higher studies in the school. 3. They should be introduced to the fields of useful and interesting knowledge, and be given such a start in the pursuit of knowledge that they may be expected to make some progress therein after leaving school.[*]

The second of these requisites finds reasonably definite provision in the course of study. It is met by the earlier work in Language

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[*] As regards the earlier grades of the school we are in substantial accord with the utterance of the French Commission on Primary Education regarding the *écoles maternelles*: "The Commission thought that the maternal school would have fulfilled its office, if the children who came from it were in good health, if their minds were open rather than full, if their young conscience were awakened, if they had contracted good habits, if, in addition, they knew a little reading, writing, and counting, and especially if they had learned to love school."—Revue Pédagogique, Vol. XII., p. 613.

(reading and writing) and by the more mechanical processes in number. Nature studies and easy studies in literature are among the materials of instruction best calculated to meet the first of the requisites mentioned. The same materials are available for the third purpose; but the knowledge of these subjects which can be imparted to little children constitutes a much less important result of their schooling than do the habits, sentiments, and aspirations which may be associated with even small acquisitions of such knowledge.

We may accordingly regard the course of study of the primary school as made up on the one hand of definite material of instruction in language and number; and on the other hand of a wide range of possible material of instruction in nature study and literature. We may say that attainments in language and number—or at least in language—are necessary to the prosecution of higher work; and the pupil's progress here can be definitely ascertained. Nature study and literature probably affect the character of the child more vitally, but progress in these studies is too subtle to be accurately measured; we can only guess at the pupil's real gains through signs of awakened intelligence, interest, and love for the things he has studied. The studies then that are necessary for promotion from grade to grade in these earliest years are language and (possibly) number; while nature study and literature are among the teacher's choicest means of achieving the finer and more impalpable results of school work. It seems fair that primary school teachers should meet a substantial requirement of instruction in language; and that they should have secured to them some reasonable portion of the school day in which to give that other instruction which prepares for no sort of mechanical test, and which is chiefly valuable for the spirit which it evokes.

Provision should be made for both sides. It is likely that in the first year more than half of the time will of necessity be devoted to the language side—to learning to read and write; and throughout the primary grades the language studies will require a proportionately large time allotment. The lack of knowledge can more easily be supplied after the pupil has left school than can the lack of the tools of acquiring knowledge. The primary schools must not fail to secure to their pupils as thorough a training in the English language as time and the ability of little children will permit. A skillful teacher can give the finest essence of elementary instruction in nature study and literature without taking from the time actually needed for language studies. Time is easily wasted on either the one side or the other.

But here a striking characteristic of the work of the elementary school, and particularly of the primary school, should be mentioned. The several branches of study are not sharply separated one from the other as in the secondary school. Its sciences are not true sciences, and no attempt should be made to make them such. It is a common practice of many progressive teachers to render the necessary work in reading, language lessons, arithmetic, and other formal studies more attractive by associating the instruction in these branches with interesting material in literature, history, or nature study. Some combination exercises of this sort are intended to answer to a definite idea of the real correlation of subjects. Others are characterized with less clearness of purpose and often lead to confusion of ideas. Though the subjects of instruction in the lower grades are not sharply differentiated as in the higher ranges, some lines of differentiation are important, and cannot be obscured without detrimental results. We purpose considering in a later report the general subject of the correlation of studies. All serious and intelligent efforts toward a true correlation deserve every possible encouragement. We can give no better word of caution against the pitfalls of superficial combination of subjects than to call attention to the repeated utterances of Alexander Bain upon this topic (in "Education as a Science;" especially chapter IX., on "The Mother Tongue").*

The tools of learning become significant only as they are applied to real material of knowledge. The forms of language, number, etc., must be applied in use to some content or other, and it is important that there should be selected for this purpose a content having the greatest possible value in itself. The caution which we suggest is directed against the danger of confusing form and content in instruction, and the closely related danger of distracting the attention of pupils by pursuing diverse ends within the same short recitation period.

We may refer briefly to the problem of the relative place of the two great branches of formal instruction, Language and Mathematics, particularly in the primary school. Lest there should be a possible misunderstanding in the use of terms, we may repeat here that in the Language group is included, for the present purpose, the work in learning to read, write, and spell, as well as the instruction that goes commonly by the name of language lessons; and that the term mathematics, including at the present time in the usage of most primary schools merely number work, should cover also any elementary exercises that may be given in the schools preparatory to the study of geometry.

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* In chapter X. of the same work occurs this significant passage: "I have everywhere maintained as a first principle of the economy or conduct of the understanding that separate subjects should be made separate lessons. This is not easy when two studies are embodied in the same composition, as language and meaning; in that case the separation can be effected by keeping one of the two in the background throughout each lesson."

So far as the lowest grades are concerned, there can be no doubt that the various lines of work in language must take precedence over the elementary work in mathematics. It is a significant fact that each great, new expansion in the child's intellectual horizon is associated with and largely brought about by a marked increase in his command of language. We can scarcely realize the immense advance which the baby makes in learning to talk. In like manner, his entrance upon school work marks another great stage of progress, in the acquisition of the power to read and write. We may hesitate to say with the Committee of Fifteen that "The whole elementary course may be described as an extension of the process of learning the art of reading;" yet the successful prosecution of the later work in all branches of study depends in large measure upon the early instruction in language. Observant teachers have often been heard to declare that the chief difficulties they met with in the teaching of arithmetic and other branches resolved themselves into difficulties in the use of language. In no other group of subjects, certainly, does the failure to do thorough work in the lower grades of the school affect more disastrously all later instruction.

We cannot agree, however, with those who would banish all work in number from the lower grades. We believe that most children take a natural interest in numbers, and there appears no good reason why they should not acquire a considerable degree of facility in handling the simpler combinations of numbers in the primary school. In the first grade, number work should not be allowed to interfere with the effective prosecution of the work of learning to read. It will probably be a gain in the long run to do none but incidental work in number in this grade. And in the primary grades above the first it seems desirable that such instruction as is given in number should relate chiefly to the mastery of mechanical processes.

As bearing upon the question of the relation of the formal side of school work to the knowledge subjects, especially in the lower grades, we may quote a suggestive passage from a letter of Principal F. L. Burk, of the Santa Rosa schools: "If by language is meant the power of the child to classify and name facts of consciousness which are clearly in his mind, then I would be inclined to say in answer to Question 4, that in the lowest primary grades he will be kept very busy naming and classifying the facts which he has gathered prior to his entrance into school life—the facts of concrete quantity, of scientific relation and of emotion; and I should be inclined to protest seriously against work which should have for its chief end the addition of raw objective facts—indeed, at any point of school education it is to be questioned whether addition to the store of raw facts should take precedence over the business of arrangement. If we school men will look after thorough digestion, the mind will win the food."

Your committee is not prepared to enter into any formal discussion of the relative place of the two great lines of study on what we have called the content side of the course. As regards nature study, an interesting line of inquiry is opened up by the paper of Mr. E. P. Rowell, published in the *Pacific Educational Journal* for April, 1895. No other line of work attempted in the elementary schools is in so chaotic a condition at the present time as is our nature study. Probably one reason for this state of things is that suggested by Mr. Rowell, that courses have been mapped out in this department without taking into account the actual state of the children's natural interest. Another reason, which may be at bottom the same, is that in this study no valid sequence of topics seems to have been discovered. These aspects of the question call for careful and extended investigation. On the side of History, and particularly of those simple forms of narrative which serve as the introduction to History so far as little children are concerned, interesting inquiries into the choice of material have been undertaken in the State Normal Schools at San José and Los Angeles.

Your committee offers this incomplete and wholly inadequate discussion of the general subjects entering into the primary school course, in the hope that it may at least stimulate the teachers of the State to further study of this great problem. In apology for the fact that this report undertakes to give very few definite answers to the questions proposed, we may say that your committee takes the same attitude which it has urged the teachers of the State to assume—an attitude not of advocacy of opinions, but rather of the candid search for truth. Of the questions raised, the one offering the greatest practical difficulties is that relating to the time allotment. There is undoubtedly danger of attempting to make schemes of time allotment too minute. Yet the inquiry which this question has aroused seems to your committee likely to prove highly beneficial, in that it leads to a close examination of the present practice and of the reasons underlying it. The quantitative aspect of the first five of the committee's questions centers in this question of time. We believe that this may profitably be continued as one of the questions for consideration during the coming year.

The qualitative problem of the determination of the principles which should govern the choice of materials on the content side, is one demanding long and patient study. We venture to indicate certain principles, a consideration of which may prove suggestive to those interested in undertaking the investigation of this problem:

It would seem that since it is impossible to secure encyclopedic knowledge, such topics should be selected for the purposes of instruction as will present convenient centers for the organization of knowledge that may be acquired later. Other things being equal, material should be chosen which will be significant for the higher studies in the same subjects; but this does not imply that the elementary work should present an outline of the sciences, literature, and history to be studied later. It should rather begin with what is nearest to the child, whether locally or in respect to his natural tastes and aptitudes. It should be material of such character as may be most likely to insure a lively participation on the part of the child and to lead him to desire a long-continued and loving association with the things studied. It should be material with which the teacher has already enjoyed such long-continued and loving association. Thomas Arnold once said, "That which we know and love, we cannot but communicate; that which we know and do not love, we soon, I think, cease to know." Especially in the lower grades, latitude should be allowed to teachers to select topics which they can teach best. Especial pains should, moreover, be taken to select material which has a vital and stimulating ethical significance.

Whatever choice is made, it is incumbent upon those who choose that they have abundant reason for selecting the few things that are taken in preference to any of the multitude of things which must be passed over.

III. RECOMMENDATIONS.

Your committee would respectfully present the following recommendations:

A. That a sufficient number of copies of this report be printed to supply all of the teachers of this State, and to provide for such distribution to representatives of the press and others as may seem needful to the committee in the further prosecution of its work.

B. That the State Teachers' Association be asked to appropriate the sum of one hundred and fifty dollars to be expended by the Council in the publication and free distribution of this report, in the printing of such circulars as may be required for the furtherance of this discussion and investigation, and in the payment of necessary postage.

C. That all county and city superintendents of schools in this State be requested to transmit copies of this report to all teachers in the public schools of their respective counties and cities, and to set apart each one day of the county or city teachers' institute of the year 1896 for the discussion of the questions proposed by your committee.

D. That all teachers be requested to give serious thought and study to the problems presented in these questions and to participate in the discussion of the same in the teachers' institutes; and that the institutes be invited to sum up and transmit to this committee the results of their discussions, whether embodied in the form of definite resolutions or in any other convenient form.

E. That the public press of this State be invited to participate in the discussion of these questions.

F. That this committee be authorized to appoint such advisory committees and sub-committees as it may deem desirable for the better prosecution of its investigation; and that for this purpose it be not limited to the membership of either the Council or the Association.

G. That one half-day session of the next meeting of the State Teachers' Association be devoted to the presentation of reports of the further progress of this investigation and the discussion of the same.

H. Your committee would recommend that the discussions of the coming year be directed to the following questions:

5. What proportion of the time in each grade should be devoted to each of the four groups of studies: (1) *Language* (including reading, writing, language lessons, and grammar), (2) *Mathematics* (including number work, arithmetic, geometry, algebra, etc.), (3) *History* (including literature and history proper), and (4) *Natural Science* (including observation lessons, nature study, and geography)?

6. How far and in what ways should the work of the several grades be determined by the prevailing tastes and aptitudes of children commonly found in those grades?

7. How far and in what ways should the work of the several

grades be determined by the need of preparation for life in human society?

8. Are there other general principles which should have influence in the determination of the course of study?

9. How far and in what ways should provision be made for the recognition of individual differences among pupils?

10, *a.* What studies from the mathematical group should be pursued in each of the grades?

10, *b.* In what grade should long division be taught?

10, *c.* In what grade should the study of common fractions begin? In what grade should provision be made for teaching the addition of common fractions by finding the least common multiple of their denominators?

10, *d.* In what grade should the study of decimal fractions begin?

10, *e.* In what grade should the analysis of problems begin?

10, *f.* In what grade should the learning of tables of denominate numbers begin? What tables should the pupils be required to learn?

10, *g.* What topics in percentage should be taught in the schools?

10, *h.* Is it desirable that the work of each grade should deal with one topic or small group of topics in arithmetic; or should work in all of the main topics be continued through several grades?

10, *i.* What place should be given to mental arithmetic?

10, *j.* What topics in algebra should be covered in the course for the grammar school?

10, *k.* What should be the general scope and character of instruction in geometry in the elementary school?

10, *l.* What instruction in book-keeping should be undertaken in the elementary school?

We would call attention also to certain other questions of great importance, which are not proposed for regular discussion this year, but which it is our intention to bring up for extended consideration at some future time:

What kind and what amount of manual training is desirable and practicable in the elementary schools? Should a difference be made between the schools of cities, those of small towns, and those of country districts in this particular?

[We would call especial attention to the valuable reports on this subject to be printed and distributed this year by the State Teachers' Association.]

What principles should guide in the choice of literary material for use in the several grades?

What principles should guide in the choice of topics in nature study in the several grades?

What degree of excellence in language work may reasonably be expected of pupils in the several grades? What allowance must be made for the lack of home training in language and for differences in nationality? In what way should the study of formal grammar be introduced?

What correlation or "concentration" of studies is possible and desirable in the several grades?

So many teachers have asked for guidance in reading upon the general subject of the course of study that we repeat the list of books suggested in our first circular, and make some additions to the same:

The two works that are especially recommended are The Report of the Committee of Ten on Secondary School Studies, and The Report of the Committee of Fifteen. (These are published by the American Book Company and by other publishers of educational works.)

The following additional works were mentioned in our first circular:

White, Emerson E.: The Elements of Pedagogy. (Chicago, American Book Company.)

McMurry, Charles A.: The Elements of General Method. By the same author, Special Method for History; Special Method in Reading; Special Method in Geography. (Bloomington, Ill., Public School Publishing Company.)

Hill, Thomas: The True Order of Studies. (New York, G. P. Putnam's Sons.)

Parker, Francis W.: Talks on Pedagogics. (Chicago, E. L. Kellogg & Co.)

We may add the following titles of works which will be found helpful either upon the subject as a whole or upon particular points:

Bain, Alexander: Education as a Science. (New York, D. Appleton & Company.)

Compayré, Gabriel: Lectures on Pedagogy. (Chicago, D. C. Heath & Company.)

Lange, Karl: Apperception, a Monograph on Psychology and Pedagogy. (Chicago, D. C. Heath & Company.)

McLellan, James A., and *Dewey*, John: The Psychology of

Number. (New York, D. Appleton & Company.) [An interesting "symposium" on this book appeared in the *Journal of Education* (Boston) for December 5th, 1895.]

McMurry, Charles A.: A Course of Study for the Eight Grades of the Common School. (Bloomington, Ill., Public School Publishing Company.)

Prince, John T.: Courses and Methods. (Boston, Lee & Shepard.)

Prince, John T.: Methods of Instruction and Organization of the Schools of Germany. (Boston, Lee & Shepard.)

We would call attention also to papers and discussions relating to the question of Mathematics in the schools, contained in the published Proceedings of the California Teachers' Association for former years, and particularly to the report of the Committee on Mathematics presented at the meeting held in Santa Cruz (1894).

Valuable papers relating to the problem of the curriculum may be found also in the *First Year Book of the Herbart Society* (to be had of Charles A. McMurry, Secretary, Normal, Illinois).

Those who have access to the Annual Report of the Board of Education of Massachusetts for 1893–94 will be interested in the new course of studies for elementary schools given in pages 305–429 of that document.

In conclusion, we would express our high appreciation of the co-operation we have received in the labor of the past year. So many have rendered valuable assistance that it would be difficult to make individual mention of those to whom we are most indebted.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

JOHN W. LINSCOTT,
ELMER E. BROWN,
JAS. A. FOSHAY,
LUCY M. WASHBURN,
P. M. FISHER,
Committee.

Adopted by the Council of Education.

S. T. BLACK, *President.*
J. W. MCCLYMONDS, *Secretary.*

The following resolutions were adopted by the California Teachers' Association, January 4, 1895:

"*Resolved*, That we recognize with great satisfaction the very general participation on the part of our teachers in the investigation of

ANNOUNCEMENT.

THE NEXT MEETING OF THE

California Teachers' Association

WILL BE HELD AT

SAN JOSÉ, DECEMBER 28-31, 1896.

The subjects presented in this report will be discussed at that meeting. All teachers and friends of education in the State are urgently invited to be present. Reduced railroad and hotel rates will undoubtedly be secured.

J. W. LINSCOTT, *President.*
ANNA C. MURPHY, *Secretary.*

UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA
DEPARTMENT OF PEDAGOGY

[BULLETIN NO. 3]

SCHOOL ARCHITECTURE.

The following brief suggestions are offered in the belief that the money invested in California from year to year in the erection of new houses might be made to yield a larger return in the health and comfort of pupils if the attention of school boards were called to these things.

There are several convenient handbooks containing practical suggestions relative to the construction of school-houses, based upon the results of practical experience and scientific investigation. The following are among the best:

Burnham, Wm. H.: School Hygiene. Pedagogical Seminary, Vol. 2. Worcester, Mass., 1892. $1.50.

Lincoln, D. F.: School and Industrial Hygiene. Philadelphia: Presley Blakiston, 1880.

Lincoln, D. F.: The sanitary conditions and necessities of school-houses and school-life. Concord, 1886. To be had of the Secretary of the American Public Health Association, Concord, N. H. 5c.

Marble, Albert P.: Sanitary Conditions for School-Houses. Circular of Information No. 3, 1891. Washington: Bureau of Education. (May be had free of cost by writing to the United States Commissioner of Education.)

Morrison, Gilbert B.: The Ventilation and Warming of School Buildings. New York: D. Appleton & Company, 1892. $1.00.

Newsholme, Arthur.: School Hygiene. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1889. 75c.

Whitford, W. C.: Circular on Plans and Specifications of School-Houses for Country Districts, Villages, and Smaller Cities of Wisconsin. Madison, 1882. A portion of this work is reproduced in Marble's circular.

A few suggestions in detail are here offered for the convenience of school boards:

SPECIFICATIONS.—It is desirable that school boards advertising for architects' plans should make as complete and definite a statement as possible of the architectural and hygienic conditions which are to be observed in the construction of the building proposed. In this respect the circular recently issued by the Board of Education of Fresno is suggestive.

LIGHTING.—The window surface in each room should equal at least one-fifth of the floor surface. The windows should be grouped, and in order to avoid cross-lights should be either all on one side of the room, the left being the best, (Newsholme) or should occupy three-fourths of the left side toward the rear and one-fourth of the rear toward the left (Burnham, Marble). A schoolroom lighted from three sides has about the worst possible lighting. Since the best light is from above, the windows should reach nearly or quite to the ceiling (Burnham, Newsholme, Marble). Their sills should be four feet from the floor (Marble). The shades should be of a light lavender or green color, and should roll from the bottom to the top, though it is well to have thin white shades rolling from the top to regulate the light. Sliding blinds are better than shades (Marble).

HEATING AND VENTILATION.—It will generally be found necessary in large buildings to employ a fan in order to secure sufficient movement of air for ventilation. The best authorities maintain that warm air should be introduced at some distance above the heads of the persons in the room, (eight feet, according to Marble), and foul air withdrawn through openings at or near the floor. Where closed stoves must be used, they should be "jacketed," the fresh air being admitted through an opening in the floor within the jacket. It is estimated that thirty cubic feet of fresh air per pupil should be admitted every minute. A very thorough and complete discussion of the whole subject is contained in Marble's report referred to above. Valuable object lessons in heating and ventilation are furnished by the newly-erected school buildings in Oakland.

HALLWAYS AND STAIRWAYS.—The hallways should be light, airy, and well-built. There should be as few turns as possible in the stairways. A winding staircase is objectionable. Straight staircases, if very long, should be broken by frequent landings. The stairways should always be fire-proof (Marble, Newsholme, *Burnham*).

Storm-doors should be provided, especially where there is snow and sleet. If there is a flight of steps leading from the ground to the main hallway, it should be wholly, or for most part, enclosed within the building (Marble).

ROOMS.—The best shape of schoolroom is an oblong, with the width to the length as three is to four (Newsholme, Marble). The lighting of the room should be chiefly or wholly on one of the long sides. In our California climate it is best to avoid admitting the light on the south side of the room. The width of the room should not be more than one and one-half times the height of the top of the windows from the floor. Very high ceilings are not desirable.

There should be at least fifteen square feet of floor space to each pupil, and at least one hundred and fifty cubic feet of space to each pupil. (Newsholme).

The walls of the room should be colored in neutral tints, and surfaces that reflect a glaring light should be avoided. The blackboards should not be on the same side of the room as the windows. The lower edge of the blackboard should be within twenty inches of the floor for the youngest pupils, and within thirty inches for the largest. Blackboards should be made as smooth as possible. Stone-slate blackboards combine smoothness and a "dead" surface with other advantages. They are extensively used in both city and country schools in San Bernardino County and in other parts of the State. The floors and walls should be deadened to prevent the transmission of sounds to the neighboring rooms. Transoms over doors and windows should be hinged from the bottom and open inwards.

GROUNDS.—It is highly important that the schoolhouse should be erected in ample playgrounds. Both the building and the grounds should be thoroughly drained. The grounds should be so graded as to slope down gently from the building in all directions.

The distance of neighboring buildings should be at least twice their height, in order that sufficient light and sunshine may be admitted.

ELMER E. BROWN.

BERKELEY, April 15, 1895.

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... Program ...

California Teachers' Association

TWENTY-EIGHTH ANNUAL SESSION.

WEDNESDAY, THURSDAY,
AND FRIDAY,
DECEMBER 26-28, 1894.

TO BE HELD AT
SANTA CRUZ.

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OFFICERS FOR 1894

PRESIDENT,	GEO. R. KLEEBERGER, San Jose
VICE-PRESIDENTS,	PROF. F. SLATE, University of Cal. HARR WAGNER, San Diego
SECRETARY,	J. P. GREELEY, Santa Ana
ASSISTANT SECRETARY	MISS ANNA C. MURPHY, Sacramento
RAILROAD SECRETARY	SAMUEL T. BLACK, Ventura
TREASURER,	GEO. A. MERRILL, San Francisco

PROGRAM

ALL SESSIONS

At the First Congregational Church.

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Wednesday Afternoon, Dec. 26, 1894.

2 P. M. Annual Address of the President.

2.30 P. M. The School Curriculum.

1. GEO. H. HOWISON.

2. EARL BARNES.

SYLLABUS. Our ignorance as to the effect of various studies on the mind.

Necessity of experimental study on the effects of different studies.

Subject matter taught, meantime, should: 1—Be necessary as a tool in mental work. 2—Give best all around development. 3—Appeal most strongly to the child's interest. 4—Be truest and strongest expression of teacher's personal power of preparation. 5—Be most available for child's environment.

DISCUSSION. C. H. KEYES, W. F. HALL, P. W. SEARCH.

Wednesday Evening.

Reception to teachers by citizens of Santa Cruz.

Thursday Forenoon, Dec. 27.

9.30 A. M. Mathematics.

1. Importance of the History of Mathematics—
L. J. HENGSTLER.

SYLLABUS. Ideas not clearly understood without some knowledge of their history.

Knowledge of the historical development of mathematical ideas necessary to a view of the relative importance of the different branches of mathematics.

References to the history of mathematics create and promote interest in mathematical study.

2. ———————————————— P. J. RUSSELL.

3. Report of Committee of '93 on Mathematics—
J. B. MCCHESNEY.

SYLLABUS. Simple exercises in concrete geometry should be a component part of revised arithmetic of State series.

In the words of the committee of ten, said book "should give some *familiarity with* algebraic expressions and symbols, including methods of *solving simple* equations."

Thursday Afternoon.

1 P. M. Election of officers. Choice of meeting place, 1895.

1.30 P. M. The Teaching Force.

1. DAVID STARR JORDAN.

SYLLABUS. Need of general training as a preparation for life.

Need of special training for growth of the mind and recognition of the meaning of truth.

Need of professional training.

Professional training possible only on a basis of general culture.

Originality of thought, or of method, the flower of education. Possible only to those who know what others have thought or done.

2. ELMER E. BROWN.

3. EDWIN T. PIERCE.

SYLLABUS. Duty of government in regard to the education of its people. This duty involves the employment of competent teachers in *all* of the schools.

What the thorough preparation of a teacher includes.

Wherein the college course, alone, fails.

Wherein the pedagogical course in the University fails.

The Normal School: (*a*) In Europe and this country. (*b*) How organized. (*c*) Peculiar advantages. (*d*) What it has done for educational advancement. (*e*) What it is doing. (*f*) What it may do. (*g*) The Normal School of the future. (*h*) Why it must be the principal source of the teaching supply.

DISCUSSION. MISS JEAN PARKER, A. H. YODER, R. F. PENNELL.

Thursday Evening.

7.30 P. M. Armor Plates and Great Guns—IRVING M. SCOTT.

Friday Forenoon, Dec. 28.

9.30 A. M. Art in Education, including Manual Training.

1. Industrial Art—H. T. ARDLEY.

SYLLABUS. Industrial Art defined. Its practical value. Drawing as a foundation. How it should be taught. Ornamental design in elementary education. The relation of Industrial Art to Manual Training.

2. Manual Training—KATHERINE M. BALL.

SYLLABUS. Education — development spiritually, intellectually, physically.

Accumulation of knowledge, the formation of taste and the art of doing.

Practical value of a knowledge of science, literature, and art.

Commercial value of raw material, skilled labor, and beauty.

The Art idea in Manual Training.

Manual Training not exclusively sloyd or carpentry.

3. Manual Training—WALTER KENYON.

SYLLABUS. 1. What is Manual Training? (*a*) Its psychology. (*b*) Pedagogic side. (*c*) Social and ethical views.

2. Growth of Manual Training ideas. 3. Existing systems. 4. Manual Training of future.

Friday Afternoon.

1.30 P. M. Difficulties in the way of applying the Ideal Curriculum, and employing the Competent Teacher.

1. J. W. LINSCOTT.

SYLLABUS. I. 1. Preparation of teachers. 2. Methods of teaching. 3. Number of pupils or classes.

II. 1. Law governing employment of teachers. 2. Tendency toward lowering salaries.

2. F. McG. MARTIN.

3. A. B. COFFEY.

SYLLABUS. I. 1. Lack of the Curriculum. 2. Patrons as obstructionists. 3. Itinerancy of teachers.

II. 1. The school degraded to the position of a stepping stone. 2. Unsatisfactory examinations by boards of education. 3. Incompetent or prejudiced trustees.

DISCUSSION. J. W. McCLYMONDS, J. P. GREELEY, J. A. BARR.

Friday Evening, 7.30.

7.30 P. M. Address on behalf of the California Science Association.

The Physical Relation of Man to Animals—JOS. LECONTE.

* * *

YOU AND YOUR FRIENDS are most cordially invited to attend this meeting of the Association. The railroads will grant the usual one-third return rates. Certificates granting reduced rates may be obtained, by enclosing stamp, of the Secretary, J. P. Greeley, Santa Ana, or of Anna C. Murphy, State Capitol, Sacramento.

No certificate will be good for reduced return fare unless accompanied by receipt for full fare one way, signed by the local agent from whom the holder purchased a ticket to Santa Cruz.

Be sure to get that receipt when you buy your ticket at your local station.

All hotels have agreed to reduce rates to $1.50 and $2.50 per day. Apply at once to D. C. Clark, Santa Cruz, for accomodations.

LOCAL COMMITTEE.

HON. BART BUCK
C. E. LINDSAY
LILLIAN A. HOWARD
KARA ALLEN
W. T. JETER
MAYOR ROBERT EFFEY
SADIE V. GARNER
JENNIE GRAHAM
J. W. LINSCOTT
W. D. HARLAN
STELLA FWIKELDAY
L. W. CUSHMAN
D. C. CLARK
W. E. DODGE

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California Science Association

. . FIRST ANNUAL MEETING . .

Santa Cruz, December 28 and 29, 1894

OFFICERS FOR 1894

Joseph LeConte	President
David Starr Jordan	First Vice-President
Charles H. Keyes	Second Vice-President
M. W. Haskell	Acting Secretary
Oliver P. Jenkins	Treasurer
John D. Parker	Custodian
Fernando Sanford George Pyburn	Committee on Membership
A. J. McClatchie Irving Stringham	Committee on Programme
C. L. Anderson	Chairman Local Committee

PROVISIONAL PROGRAMME

FRIDAY, DECEMBER 28, 9:00 A. M.

L. T. HENGSTLER—Is Socialism unfavorable to the development of ability?

CARL C. PLEHN—Rational Methods of Taxation.

MARY OLMSTED STANTON—Outlines of Scientific Physiognomy.

1:00 P. M.

Business Meeting. Election of Officers.

C. L. ANDERSON—From Cell to Leaf.

W. R. DUDLEY—Concerning the Anthers and Pollination of *Zostera latifolia*, the Sea-Wrack of California.

V. L. KELLOGG—The Taxonomic Value of the scales of the Lepidoptera.

A. J. McCLATCHIE—Bacteria in Pasadena Water Supply.

V. L. KELLOGG—A laboratory course in Entomology.

C. W. GREENE—The so-called phosphorescent organs of Porichthys.

O. P. JENKINS—The fishes of the Hawaiian Islands, with notes on their geographical distribution and on rare and on new species.

O. P. JENKINS with ELSIE H. SHELLEY—Notes on the elements of the cerebrum and the cerebellum of the human brain.

7:30
P. M.

Annual Address of the President, JOSEPH LECONTE, on "The Psychical Relation of Man to Animals."

D. C. CLARK W. E. DODGE

SATURDAY, DECEMBER 29, 9:00 A. M.

GEORGE PYBURN—A contribution to the theory of (chemical) affinity.

S. W. YOUNG with **MAXWELL ADAMS**—The Iodides of Tin.

J. M. STILLMAN with **A. S. MILLER**—Action of ammonia on ferric chloride.

E. W. HILGARD—Recent Advances in Soil Investigation.

JOHN D. PARKER—California Electrical Storms.

JOHN D. PARKER—Secular Periods in Nature.

ANDREW C. LAWSON—The Elements of Geography.

1:00 P. M.

IRVING STRINGHAM—Recent Methods in Absolute Geometry.

M. W. HASKELL—A new definition of Hyperbolic Functions.

FERNANDO SANFORD—The Electrical Conductivity of Metals.

FERNANDO SANFORD—A photographic map of the electric field.

M. E. TAYLOR—An automatic Sprengel pump.

H. D. STEARNS—An experimental method of determining the radius of gyration.

ARMIN O. LEUSCHNER—The solution of comet orbits.

IRVING STRINGHAM—American Mathematical Periodicals.

N. B.—Notice of other papers to be presented at this meeting should be sent to the Acting Secretary, P. O. Box 3, Berkeley, California, *immediately*.

D. C. CLARK W. E. DODGE

Erratum.

CALIFORNIA TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION,

SANTA CRUZ, DEC. 26–28, 1894.

"THE IDEAL CURRICULUM."

OUTLINE OF PAPER BY PROFESSOR G. H. HOWISON,
OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA,

WEDNESDAY P.M., DEC. 26.

I. There *is* no "Ideal Curriculum,"—no single and entire course of study perfectly reasonable for all pupils alike.

II. Ideality, in school matters, confines its sober ambition to adjusting education in the most reasonable way to the actual imperative needs of the pupils and the society of which they are members; looking at both society and pupils not merely (1) in the light of their final ideal aims, but also (2) in that of the actual conditions under which they have to live.

III. School idealism must therefore express itself in a rightly divided school *system*, instead of in a curriculum;—a system based (1) on the comprehension and adoption of the distinction between education as *Liberal* and education as *Vocational;* (2) on the persistent provision for both in every school; (3) on a distinction philosophical and real, instead of merely nominal and customary, between education as *Primary*, as *Secondary*, and as *Higher*.

IV. The reasonable school system will accordingly divide schools into (1) those of foundation-studies identical for *all* pupils, because indispensable either as preparation or else as seed-ground for any and all further studies,—Primary schools, all of *one* type; (2) those of studies differing for different *classes* of pupils, classes that, because of different powers and different relations to self-support, must look to different vocations,—Secondary schools, of very many *different* types; and (3) those of studies in final specialization and original research, differing for *each student* as each may elect,—Higher schools, chiefly Universities, again of a *single* type, probably, but comprehensive of all possible mature personal choices.

V. The great error of our American public school system hitherto, is its ignoring this vastly varied character, due to vocational differentiation, that belongs intrinsically to the Secondary school, and its limiting the conception of the Secondary school to a single type of it, which is essentially only a school preparatory for college.

VI. Nevertheless, the vastly diversified vocation schools of the Secondary education will not only retain among them, as one type, the college-preparatory school that forms our customary high school or academy, but the Secondary conception rightly applied will extend this school upward to include as its necessary complement the old college, this college and its preparatory studies forming the Secondary school for those whose gifts and power of self-support assign them the high but exacting vocation of illustrating culture and promoting its increase; moreover, every Secondary school, of whatever type, while its studies are dominantly directed upon a vocation, must securely provide for the Liberal factor indispensable in all education; and the most essential part of this it directly provides for, in planning for the foundation-layer of common morality by insisting on the duty of honest self-support and self-respect.

VII. Every reasonable and practicable project for a school system, especially in the Secondary stage, must not only provide for such ever-continuing improvements as will meet the advancing needs of its public, but must avoid introducing changes faster than the *status quo* will permit; it must have constant regard to the historic growth of the actual schools as well as to the public needs, and must respect public opinion while resolutely acting to lead it.

VIII. The foregoing principles prepare us for a right estimate of the *Report of the Committee of Ten*, and lead us to say:—(1) Its adoption throughout the country would effect a decided improvement in our traditional Secondary school, not only (*a*) by securing a uniformity of curriculum now missing and greatly needed, but (*b*) by improving, on the whole, the value-scale of subjects taught, so far as this depends on time-allotment; (2) its prudent strength lies, probably, just in its close adherence to the main lines of our present Secondary scheme; but (3) its defect, as an "Essay for the Times" on Secondary education, consists in exactly this adherence to the frame of the Secondary school as it is; an adherence that prevents attention to two urgent needs, viz., (*a*) thoroughgoing *differentiation* in Secondary work, to meet the fundamental moral demand for a training that will qualify for the varied vocations, and (*b*) far-reaching changes in the *time-range* of Secondary studies; hence, (4) its recommendation of Four Parallel Courses, in one school preparatory for college, yokes together two aims that are essentially divergent, for the most effective work in each of which, as well as for the safety of Higher education, Courses I. and II. should be assigned together to *Latin Schools*, and Courses III. and IV. to *High Schools*, with the definitive understanding that the latter do not qualify for the college or the university; moreover, (5) its hints of a needed extension, both forward and backward, in the time given to Secondary studies in the whole school life, should be carried out into specific detail, the present error of calling studies Primary up to the ninth year of school life being corrected, and the beginning of Secondary work being properly set for the opening of the fifth school-year, or, at latest, of the sixth; in the case of the Latin Schools, moreover, the Secondary period should be extended forward also, to include the field of the old colleges, or the first two years of the remodelled colleges of higher grade; but (6) its gravest defect is its missing its great opportunity to enforce the fact, that, for the overwhelming majority of pupils, Secondary education, to be consistent with solidity of self-respecting and dutiful character, must, while securely providing for some pure culture, be proximately and effectively aimed at *vocations*, and that its needs cannot be met by the single type of school preparatory for college; the unanimity of the Report in this respect, and of the reports of its nine auxiliary Conferences, is one of its strangest features, but is explicable by the composition of the Conferences,—not in respect to persons, but to institutions and professional duties,—and by the form of the questions put before them, and is consequently not decisive; finally, (7) any drift the Report incidentally has toward giving Courses III. and IV. in its final Table an equal value with Courses I. and II., either in intrinsic educative power or in preparation for college and university, is destitute of philosophical justification; if such a drift exists, it is peculiarly harmful in respect to the conditions for admission to universities, and thence to true university work, and should be steadfastly resisted.

UNIVERSITY

TO SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENTS AND COUNTY BOARDS OF EDUCATION

[illegible] How far and in what way should the work be determined by the prospective lifework of the children?

We desire to emphasize the importance of discussions based not merely upon preconceived opinions or results arrived at haphazard, but upon a painstaking study of the literature of the question, and careful observation of the effect of studies upon the children in the schools. We would recommend especially that the two following works be read by all the teachers:

The Report of the Committee of Ten, (published by the American Book Co., Chicago.)

The Report of the Committee of Fifteen, (published by the Educational Review — Henry Holt & Co., New York.)

In addition to these reports the best available literature, bearing upon the subject, should be read as widely as possible.

The following may be mentioned as suggestive works:

White: Elements of Pedagogy. (American Book Co., Chicago.)

McMurry: General Method; and Special Method for History and Literature, Reading and Geography. (Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Ill.)

Hill: The True Order of Study. (G. P. Putman's Sons, New York.)

Parker: Talks on Pedagogics. (E. L. Kellogg & Co., Chicago.)

If the plan here proposed meets with your approval, may we ask you to present it to your teachers, and enlist their hearty co-operation in carrying it out? Will you kindly send us within one week of the close of your institute a copy of any statement or resolutions bearing upon the subject which your teachers may have adopted? We should be particularly pleased to have added to such expression of the views of your teachers an expression of your own views upon the subject. It is our purpose to embody the results of our inquiry in a preliminary report, to be presented at the meeting of the Council of Education next December, and to be made the basis of discussion for the year following. In counties and cities where the institute for the current year has already been held, we would suggest that the attention of the teachers be called to these questions, and preparation be made for their discussion in the next institute; but that in the meantime the superintendents and county boards send us an expression of their own views in response to these inquiries, to be embodied in the December report.

The committee has not been authorized to incur so great an expense for printing and postage as would be involved in sending a copy of this circular to all the teachers of the State. We should esteem it a great favor if superintendents would undertake to send out from their own offices a circular embodying either the whole or the chief part of the matter here presented.

Hoping for your active support in this important movement, we are,

Very respectfully yours,

J. W. LINSCOTT, JAS. A. FOSHAY,
ELMER E. BROWN, P. M. FISHER,
LUCY M. WASHBURN,
Committee.

7

DOCUMENT No. 13.

Council of Education

of the

State of New Jersey.

REPORT

of the

Standing Committees on Pedagogics, and School Organization and Administration.

Presented for Discussion at the Session of November 13th and 14th, 1896, held at High School Building, Newark, N. J.

TRENTON, N. J.:
MacCrellish & Quigley, Printers, Opposite Post Office.
1896.

Council of Education

of the

State of New Jersey

1896-7

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JAMES M. GREEN, PH.D.,
Principal of State Normal School, Trenton.

Vice-President,

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Term Expiring December, 1896.

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Principal of Washington Street School, Newark.

Joseph Clark,
Principal of Training School, Newark.

William N. Mumper, Ph.D.,
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B. Holmes,
County Superintendent of Schools, Elizabeth.

John Enright,
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W. L. R. Haven,
Superintendent of Schools, Morristown.

Henry Snyder, A.M.,
Superintendent of Schools, Jersey City.

Elias F. Carr, Ph.D.,
Professor of Mathematics, State Normal School, Trenton.

Charles M. Davis, A.M.,
Superintendent of Schools, Bayonne.

H. H. Hutton, Ph.D.,
Superintendent of Schools, Passaic.

Joseph A. Hallock,
Principal of Webster Street School, Newark.

S. R. Morse,
Atlantic City.

Term Expiring December, 1897.

WILLIAM E. BISSELL,
Principal of Burnett Street School, Newark.

JAMES M. GREEN, PH.D.,
Principal of State Normal School, Trenton

RANDALL SPAULDING, A.B.,
Superintendent of Schools, Montclair.

CHRISTOPHER GREGORY,
Superintendent of Schools, Long Branch.

W. H. BRACE, PH.D.,
Principal of High School, Trenton.

E. H. DUTCHER,
Principal Eastern District School, East Orange.

CLARENCE E. MORSE,
Principal of Ashland School, East Orange.

GEORGE G. RYAN, A.M.,
Superintendent of Schools, New Brunswick.

B. C. GREGORY,
Supervising Principal of Schools, Trenton.

J. HOWARD HULSART,
Supervising Principal of Schools, Dover.

MARTIN L. COX,
County Superintendent of Schools, Dover.

F. R. BRACE, PH.D.,
Blackwood.

WILLIAM MILLIGAN,
Superintendent of Schools, Woodbury.

H. E. HARRIS,
Principal of Public School No. 1, Bayonne.

JAMES M. RALSTON, A.M.,
Supervising Principal of Schools, Asbury Park.

S. E. MANNESS,
Supervising Principal of Schools, Fourth District, Camden.

Term Expiring December, [illegible]

William N. Barringer, Ph.D.,
Superintendent of Schools, Newark.

Austin C. Apgar,
Professor of Botany and Zoology, State Normal School, Trenton.

Charles E. [illegible], A.M.,
Principal of Schools, [illegible].

Augustus Scarlett,
Principal of South Eighth Street School, Newark.

William J. Shearer, M.A.,
Superintendent of Schools, Elizabeth.

J. Wilmer Kennedy,
Principal of Miller Street School, Newark.

A. B. Guilford,
Principal of School No. [illegible], Jersey City.

S. V. Arrowsmith,
Principal of Schools, Keyport.

John Terhune,
County Superintendent of Schools, Hackensack.

H. Brewster Willis,
County Superintendent of Schools, New Brunswick.

Nelson Haas, Ph.D.,
Principal of High School, Hackensack.

Charles S. Haskell, M.A.,
Principal of High School, Jersey City.

Oliver C. Mordorf, A.M.,
Supervisor in State Model School, Trenton.

J. A. Wheelock,
Principal of Schools, Cape May Court House.

C. J. Majory, Ph.D.,
Principal of Schools, Newton.

Levi Seeley, Ph.D.,
Professor of History and Science of Education, State Normal School, Trenton.

Standing Committees.

Pedagogics—Kennedy (Chairman), Barringer, Carr, Dutcher, Eversole, W. Farrand, C. Gregory, Majory, Spaulding, Seeley, Haskell.

School Law—Enright (Chairman), F. R. Brace, Hallock, Holmes, S. R. Morse, Whitelock, Willis, Bissell.

School Organization and Administration—Snyder (Chairman), W. H. Brace, Cox, Haven, Hulsart, Manness, Mordorf, Ralston, Ryan, Terhune, B. C. Gregory, Shearer.

Statistics—Scarlett (Chairman), Clark, Davis, Haas, Hanson, Harris.

Hygiene—Mumper (Chairman), Apgar, Boss, Davey, S. A. Farrand, Guilford, Hutton, Milligan, C. E. Morse, Arrowsmith.

Program.

Presentation of Printed Reports.

REPORTS OF LEVI SEELEY, PH.D., ON NORMAL SCHOOLS, AND PRINCIPALS J. WILMER KENNEDY AND JOSEPH CLARK, ON CITY TRAINING SCHOOLS.

Discussion opened by Principal Charles S. Haskell, Superintendent Vernon L. Davy, fifteen minutes each; Principal Nelson Haas, Rev. F. R. Brace, ten minutes each.

REPORT OF SUPERINTENDENT HENRY SNYDER ON GRADING AND PROMOTING PUPILS.

Discussion opened by Superintendent W. J. Shearer and Principal E. H. Dutcher, fifteen minutes each; Principal J. M. Ralston and Superintendent W. L. R. Haven, ten minutes each.

Report of the Committee on Pedagogics.

State Normal Schools.

To the Council of Education:

In presenting this report for your consideration, I am aware that I am not bringing forward a new theme, but one upon which every member of this body has given a great deal of thought. But the importance of the subject to New Jersey is such that I feel sure that we may profitably devote some time to its study and discussion. When Wilhelm von Humboldt was at the head of educational affairs in Prussia, 1808 to 1811, the office, like our National Educational Bureau, being subordinate to the Department of the Interior, he laid down three principles as the foundation of an educational system:

"1. Education shall be compulsory.

"2. Education shall be liberally aided by the State.

"3. Every teacher must be trained."

The second of these propositions has been more liberally and successfully met in this country than in any other country in the world. The last report of the United States Commissioner of Education shows that this country contributes annually upwards of one hundred and seventy millions of dollars for public education, a larger sum than any other nation in the world, being $18.55 for each child in average attendance.

Compulsory attendance is only indifferently carried out, showing that this problem is by no means solved with us as yet.

But with the third proposition, that concerning trained teachers, we are far behind several other nations, and far behind what we should do and what we are capable of doing. With that problem this report has especially to do.

From the time of the founding of the first Normal School in Massachusetts, in 1839, through the influence of Horace Mann, until the present time, the importance of trained teachers and special schools for their training is being more and more recognized. As early as 1837, this great apostle of education, in his first report to the Massachusetts Board of Education, urged in the following words that teachers should be trained:

"If, then, the business of education, in all its departments, be so responsible; if there be such liability to excite and strengthen any one faculty of the opening mind instead of its antagonist; if there be such danger of promoting animal and selfish propensities into command over social and moral sentiments; if it be so easy for an unskillful hand to adjust opportunity to temptation in such a way that the exposed are almost certain to fall; if it be a work of such delicacy to reclaim those who have wandered; if, in fine, one not deeply conversant with the human soul, with all its various faculties and propensities, and with all the circumstances and objects which naturally excite them to activity, is in incomparably more danger of touching the wrong spring of action than one, unacquainted with music, is of touching the wrong key or chord of the most complicated musical instrument—then ought not every one of those who are installed into the sacred office of teacher to be 'a workman who needeth not to be ashamed'? Surely, they should know beforehand how to touch the right spring, with the right pressure, at the right time."

President W. H. Payne says: "One of the most inspiring pages in American educational history is that on which is told the story of the planting of the first Normal School in this country, at Lexington, Massachusetts. If I interpret this history aright, the movement which culminated in the establishment of this first American Normal School was due to the ardent zeal of a few enthusiastic friends of popular education, rather than to the logical deductions of the thinker. The sanguine expectations of these noble spirits are most pathetic. They seem to say: 'The fate of the commonwealth depends on the right education of the youth; the quality of the schools depends on the learning, virtue and skill of the teachers; but good teachers cannot be improvised—they must be men and women who have set themselves apart for this high service, and who have been especially trained for its difficult duties.' The all-important thing, therefore, is the teachers' seminary; give us this, and our best wishes for the commonwealth will be fulfilled. This, in brief, is the story of this movement as it comes to us from the pages of a half century ago, and it is typical of all similar movements."

Again he says: "The Normal School is not only an essential instrument of educational progress, but is itself a product of that resistless on-going which we term civilization. Illuminating-gas, coal oil, the electric light, the printing-press, the telegraph, are not so much inventions and discoveries as growths; each of them echoes, as it were, the voice of fate; their not coming is inconceivable. And so the Normal School was one of the products of the times; its coming could not have been considerably hastened, nor could it have been prevented. It came in response to certain needs, and it has come to stay. Its mission is as definite as that of the common school, the college or the university. . . . The fact is, the era of Normal instruction has only just begun. It remains for our successors, near and remote, to possess and cultivate a land in which we are pioneers and pilgrims."

I call your attention to a third important document which deals with the training of teachers—the celebrated report of the Committee of Fifteen. I quote a single paragraph, and suggest that the whole report of the Sub-committee on the Training of Teachers be studied in connection with this report. The report says: "That teachers are 'born, not made,' has been so fully the world's thought, until the present century, that a study of subjects without any study of principles or methods of teaching has been deemed quite sufficient. Modern educational thought and modern practice, in all sections where excellent schools are found, confirm the belief that there is a profound philosophy on which educational methods are based, and that careful study of this philosophy and its application under expert guidance are essential to making fit a man born to teach."

The report is so full and so wise in its recommendations that I once more urge its careful study in connection with this discussion. From the time of Horace Mann until the present time educators have devised schemes, legislatures have enacted laws, and the people have freely spent their money to secure better trained teachers for our schools. That these influences have brought about a vast improvement in the teachers of our country, and consequently a corresponding improvement in our schools; that parents are demanding better schools and better teachers for their children; that school committees, representing their constituencies, have higher ideals than formerly, is beyond question.

But, on the other hand, it may be seriously questioned whether the progress made is greater than that in other fields of thought and enterprise. The world has made marvelous progress along every line during the past half a century, and the march of civilization has been ever onward. The encouraging signs, however, in the field of educational endeavor, are, that the report of the Committee of Fifteen has been so well received and has met with such general discussion; that Normal Schools, public and private, have been established in great numbers all over the land; that teachers' training classes and summer schools are so well patronized; that colleges and universities in increasing numbers are furnishing pedagogical instruction, and that all of these institutions are crowded with eager students who are preparing themselves professionally for teaching.

In spite of all that has been done and is being done, we have still more to do. As yet, only a deplorably small fraction of the 400,000 teachers of this country are professionally trained. The great majority of our children are still taught by novices, and parents, who demand professional skill in the treatment of the bodies of their children, are indifferent as to the professional training of those who instruct them in the school-room.

In order that we may intelligently study this great question, I propose to give the system of training teachers in several

European countries, and in several States of our own country, with certain statistics. We shall then be able to make comparisons between them and our own State in order to see just where New Jersey stands upon this important question. I think we shall be able to gather wisdom from what others have done and be prepared to suggest beneficial measures for the improvement of the teaching force of our State.

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN FRANCE.

In France, whose school system is not yet a quarter of a century old, and in respect to the training of teachers not even a decade, we find that only 1½ per cent. of the male teachers and 12½ per cent. of the female teachers, do not possess the diploma of a Normal School or the university. Only graduates can now be appointed, and in a few years all who are not graduates from a Normal School or university will have disappeared from the schools. This applies to public and private schools alike. In 1892 all of her men having charge of a school possessed either a diploma or a degree.

Elementary Normal Schools.

There are two kinds of Normal Schools: those that prepare teachers for the elementary schools, and those that prepare teachers for the advanced work. The Republic is divided into 90 departments and each department must support a Normal School for each sex. There are 87 Normal Schools for men and 85 for women, two departments combining in one school in a few instances. The teachers of these departmental Normal Schools are, as a rule, graduates of the State Normal Schools.

Candidates for the elementary Normal Schools must be at least sixteen and not over eighteen years of age, must promise to devote ten years to teaching, must be free from any disease that would unfit for the duties of a teacher, and must possess the necessary educational qualifications. These educational qualifications are about equal to those of a student who has completed three years in an American High School. The course of study in the elementary Normal School, which requires three years, comprises the common school branches, history, higher mathematics, one foreign language, pedagogics, sciences; for the young men, surveying, agriculture and military tactics; for the young women, needlework and household economy. There is always a practice school connected with a Normal School, and each student gets plenty of practice work. Instruction, board, room and books are free, but the candidate must refund the money that the State has expended on him in case he fails to fulfill his agreement.

After completing the course, the graduate receives a second-grade license to teach, and he is entitled to the preference over outsiders in case of a vacancy in any school in the department. The State, having expended so much on him, is interested in having him in her service as soon as possible. Indeed, the probable number of new teachers is so well known by statistics that the State prepares only about the number needed. After ten years' teaching, there is a second examination required, which entitles the successful candidate to a first-grade certificate and a fixed position for life.

State Normal Schools.

There are two State Normal Schools, one for each sex, in which teachers are prepared for the elementary Normal School faculties, for the high schools, and for principalships. Candidates must be not less than nineteen nor more than twenty-five years of age. These schools also are free, the same as the elementary Normal Schools. The course requires students to remain until they pass such examination as may be required, without regard to length of time, though it usually requires three years. They must pass an entrance examination, and also promise to devote ten years in the service of the State as teachers. These two schools are models of professional practice and method for the whole country. They may be said to shape the pedagogical interests of France.

There is also a third Normal School of high rank, whose purpose is to prepare women for principalships of Kindergartens.

It will thus be seen that our sister Republic across the sea has far outstripped us in the important matter of training teachers. Indeed, there is no question but that France has surpassed all other countries in her liberality towards her Normal Schools, if not in all other educational enterprise. And this has been accomplished largely during the last fifteen years, while still bearing the burden of a great war debt!

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN GERMANY.

Of the 71,731 common-school teachers in Prussia in 1893, only 241, or about three-tenths of one per cent., were not graduates of a Normal School or its equivalent. There are 122 Normal Schools, 111 being for men exclusively, 9 for women, 1 in which both men and women are taught (but not together), and 1 for governesses. Like France, there must be at least one Normal School for each governmental district, and there may be as many more as the district may need. Graduates owe allegiance to their own district if their services are needed; if not, they may seek situations elsewhere.

The common-school teachers generally come from the lower ranks of life, the most of them having passed through the eight years' common-school course, which they complete at fourteen. The opportunity to enter the profession of teaching is practically the only door to professional life which is open to the children of the common schools of Germany. Children who are bright in their studies, and who give signs of aptitude for teaching, are selected by the teacher to do some of the minor pedagogical duties of the school-room. If the child gives further evidence of possessing the qualities necessary for a teacher, the attention of the district school inspector, the pastor and the parents is called to him, and he is given an opportunity to begin the preparation for teaching. The selections are made with such care that it is rare that a mistake is made.

The Preparatory Course.

The preparatory school takes the boy at fourteen and gives him a three years' course, thus fitting him for the Normal School at the end of his seventeenth year. As the State assists these preparatory schools, the parent must obligate himself to refund the amount expended should the candidate not complete the course and become a teacher.

The course is entirely academical in character, embracing, besides a review of the common-school studies, a good course in the sciences, mathematics, literature, history, a modern language—usually either French or English—music, drawing, etc. These schools, even if not directly connected with a Normal School, are under the supervision of the principal of the Normal School of the district. Sometimes they are under the State directly, and if private they are approved by the State from whom they receive assistance. The State thus recognizes her full obligation in the preparation of teachers, who are officers of the State.

These institutions do not prepare all of the candidates for the Normal Schools, there being only 35 such preparatory schools in Prussia against 122 Normal Schools. Persons receiving their preparation elsewhere may offer themselves for examination, and if there are not a sufficient number of candidates from the preparatory schools, they may be admitted.

The Normal Schools.

The course in the Normal Schools covers three years and the number in each class is limited to from 30 to 35, thus making the total number of students in each Normal School from 90 to 100. If the number of graduates from a Normal School is not sufficient to supply the demand of the district, another school is built rather than to increase the number of students in a school. The small number in the classes enables each student to have an abundance of practice work, as we shall see later. As the teachers in Germany have permanent positions, and as they usually continue in office many years (the average term of service being 25 years), it is easy to estimate the number of new teachers that will be needed. The number that will retire on pension, the vacancies that will be caused by death and other causes, and the number of new positions that will be created by increase in population, can be pretty accurately estimated from statistics. The State is thus saved from the expense of training more teachers than she needs, and graduates are tolerably certain of employment, when their course is completed.

Candidates for the Normal School must be not less than 18 nor more than 24 years of age. They must be in good health, of good moral character, and possess the preparatory training above indicated.

Course of Study.

The work of the first year is entirely academic, that of the second year is partially academic and partially professional, that of the third year is almost wholly professional. In the second year the students are gradually introduced into the work of teaching by visiting class-work, as observers, and by assuming some control of the children. In some schools they begin teaching during the latter part of the second year. The graduating class has ten hours of academic work per week, and the remainder of the time is devoted to pedagogical work. The academic subjects of the course, in addition to the common-school branches, are as follows: Pedagogics, religion, German language and literature, history, geometry, botany, physics, chemistry, one foreign language, and music. Another foreign language is given to those who are able to take it. Each lesson by a member of the faculty is supposed to be a model of didactic procedure. Each Normal School is provided with a good library, cabinets, laboratories, and necessary apparatus for instruction.

Every student is required to teach not less than six nor more than ten hours per week during the entire year. Some part of the year the student is made responsible for a class of children, carrying out the course of study, keeping all records, maintaining discipline exactly as if in charge of a school of his own. The importance of this last feature cannot be over-estimated, as it prepares the young teacher to enter upon his field of work with great confidence. It also gives the Normal School faculty abundant opportunity to observe his work from all sides and thus to correct his errors, strengthen his weaknesses, and finally to reject him if he shall be found wanting. Another opportunity to correct errors and stimulate improvement is found in the weekly conferences of the faculty and graduating class. At these meetings, lessons are taught with a class of children, sometimes by a member of the faculty and sometimes by one of the students, the lessons being criticised at the close. Every teacher must be able to play the piano, organ and violin.

The qualifications sought to be reached in each teacher may be stated as follows:

1. Knowledge, not so much in breadth as fundamental and connected.

2. Skill in teaching, which is usually developed by practice.

3. Natural inclination for the work and duties of the teacher.

4. Power of instructing, which carries with it the gift of observing, acquaintance with the human heart and mind, and ability to understand child nature.

These are the noble ends aimed at in the German Normal School. Nor does the influence of the school cease when the young graduate goes forth to enter upon his life-work. The principal keeps an eye upon him, being ever ready to give advice after he has entered upon the realities of his important work. Nor is the territory so large as to render this duty of the principal impracticable. Upon leaving the Normal School the graduate is provisionally licensed to teach, and after two and before the end of five years he must take a final examination, which admits him into the full rights of teacher. This second examination is largely pedagogical in character, and no one is allowed to take it whose unfitness for teaching has been demonstrated during the years of probation. The State thus carefully guards the door of the school against the admission of incapacitated or unworthy persons as instructors. But when they have proven themselves worthy of the important trust, they are protected in that trust by the State all of their lives.

This, in brief, is a picture of the Prussian plan of training and securing teachers, and practically the same plan is followed all over Germany, the Normal Schools of one province being recognized in all of the other provinces. I feel sure that American teachers will find much in this system that is commendable, and much that might be applied to our conditions with great profit to the cause of education.

It should be remarked that the Normal Schools prepare teachers for the common schools, and that the teachers in the high schools are nearly all university trained, and in the universities there are not sufficient means of securing a proper professional training for the great number of teachers in the secondary schools.

The teachers of the common schools, therefore, are better prepared professionally for their work than the teachers of the high schools are prepared professionally for theirs.

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN ENGLAND.

We have at hand no adequate statistics of the training of teachers in England. It is well known, however, that a feature of the old monitorial system of Bell and Lancaster, namely, "pupil-teachers," is still in vogue. Young persons from fourteen to eighteen years of age, while preparing for the teachers' training college, are utilized as teachers. At fourteen years of age, the seven standards required by law having been passed, the student is "apprenticed" for four years to assist in teaching in a school, and at the same time to carry his own studies under the direction of the teacher in charge. He receives a small compensation for this service, which increases from year to year. Dr. Harris says in his report of 1893-94: "The decline in the number of pupil-teachers is significant, especially when considered in connection with the increase in the number of certificated and assistant teachers. It shows a growing preference for adult teachers who have passed through the training period." For example, in the period from 1876 to 1893 the increase in the number of "certificated" teachers—that is, those who have completed a pedagogical course—was 114 per cent.; the increase in the number of "assistant" teachers—that is, those who have served their "apprenticeship" as "pupil-teachers" and have entered the teachers' training college, but have not yet graduated—was 691 per cent.; while there was a decrease in the number of "pupil-teachers" for the same period of 15 per cent.

The course in the teachers' training college is two years. These colleges are private, but are under government inspection. There are 131 such institutions, which are capable of graduating 1,900 teachers, or about two-thirds of all the new teachers needed. Sixty per cent. of the masters and forty per cent. of the mistresses in the English schools are graduates of the training colleges.

England, the latest of all the great civilized nations to appreciate and adopt popular education, is making remarkable progress in the training of her teachers in these recent years. She has, however, a great deal still to do before she stands abreast of her neighbors across the Channel in this matter.

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN THE UNITED STATES.

I will now call your attention to this subject with reference to our own country. It is fifty-five years (Report of 1894) since the first Normal School was established in this country. There are now 160 public Normal Schools with 37,899 students and 5,952 graduates; 238 private Normal Schools with 27,995 students and 2,319 graduates. This makes a total of 8,271 Normal graduates.

The last ten years show a remarkable growth, as follows: Increase in the number of public Normal Schools, 22 per cent.; in students in the same, 45 per cent.; in graduates, 88 per cent. Increase in the number of private Normal Schools, 80 per cent.; students in the same, 64 per cent.; graduates, 70 per cent.

But the above does not by any means tell the whole story of the professional training of teachers. Besides the Normal Schools, 173 universities and colleges taught 5,500 pedagogical students, 153 public high schools taught 5,041 pedagogical students, and 137 private high schools or academies taught 4,332 pedagogical students, making a total of 80,767 young persons who received professional training in pedagogics.

It is true that many of the so called pedagogical students in universities and colleges get but little pedagogical training and substantially no practice-work; and in the high schools and academies the pedagogical training consists simply of the teachers' training-class occupying a fraction of the students' time for one or two terms during the year. And yet, this training is certainly better than none, and in many cases it has proven very helpful to young teachers.

There is still another factor that should be mentioned, and that is the great number of summer schools for teachers, which have been held all over the land. These schools are very prosperous because so many teachers have been willing to give up a part of their vacation to the study of education. The result is all the more cheering because of the voluntary sacrifice which teachers, often poorly paid, have been willing to make. I hold this to be one of the most encouraging signs of the times. These schools have given inspiration to thousands of teachers, who have returned to their work in the school-room with new zeal, new professional knowledge, and new power.

The recognition by universities and colleges of the principle of professional training for teachers marks a new era in the history of education in this country, and the establishment of so many chairs of pedagogy in these institutions in recent years, is another most encouraging sign.

While there are 861 institutions in the United States that give pedagogical training, the fact still remains that there are only about 8,000 students who annually complete a thorough course in pedagogy, that is, who graduate from a Normal

School. As we need about 80,000 new teachers every year, it will be seen that the supply is only about ten per cent. of the demand. No single fact more strongly emphasizes the need of greater facilities for the training of teachers in our country, or shows that we, as yet, by no means measure up to Von Humboldt's third requirement of a school system, "Every teacher must be trained." But as we have no national system of education, each State controlling its own educational affairs, let us study the subject before us in a few of the States, and finally in our own State.

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN MASSACHUSETTS.

Massachusetts has six Normal Schools which graduated, in 1895, 289 students. There are four more Normal Schools in process of erection, and $200,000 is being expended in the enlargement and improvement of one of the old Normal Schools. Thus the State will soon have ten Normal Schools, being one for each 250,000 inhabitants.

Admission.

All candidates for admission to the Normal Schools must be graduates from a high school whose courses have been approved by the State Board of Education, or must possess the equivalent of a good high school education. They are also required to pass an examination in elementary and high school subjects. The course of study covers two years, and graduates from this general course are intended for schools below the high school grade. In some of the schools there is a four years' course, two years beyond the general course. The advanced course is so arranged that promising graduates from the lower course can take it; also graduates of college. Under certain special conditions graduates of universities and college can obtain the diploma of these higher Normal Schools in one year. Graduates from this higher course are intended for the high schools.

Massachusetts has a higher percentage of professionally trained teachers than any other State in the Union, thirty-two per cent. of the teachers being Normal graduates. On this point John T. Prince, State agent of the Board of Education, says: "If the graduates of these schools (Normal) and all others who have attended a Normal School for at least one year, are included in the list of professionally qualified teachers, doubtless upwards of one-half of the whole number of teachers in the State can be said to have some special preparation for their work. While this showing is in some respects most gratifying as indicating a steady advance in the adoption of the idea of professional training, yet, taken as a whole, it is a confession of weakness inexcusable in a great and progressive commonwealth."

If the condition in Massachusetts is "weakness inexcusable," what shall be said of the rest of the States of the Union?

Dr. Prince advocates "The enactment of a law providing (*a*) that no primary or grammar school teacher shall be appointed after a certain time who has not had the equivalent of a four-years' high school course and of a two-years' Normal School Course; and (*b*) that no high school teacher shall be appointed after a certain time who has not had the equivalent of a college course and of at least one year of professional training."

This, I believe, is the highest ground yet proposed for any State, and coming from such an eminent authority in education, it cannot fail to have great weight.

I cannot close this discussion of Massachusetts without calling attention to a circular from Frank A. Hill, Secretary of the Board of Education, entitled "To One Who Wishes to Become a Teacher." This circular is furnished upon application, and it contains many wise suggestions to the class to whom it is addressed. I quote a part of a single paragraph: "The Normal School will give you a quicker insight into the nature of education, put you earlier upon right methods, save you many mistakes; in short, furnish you with the great lessons that have come from the study of the teaching process and from the history of teaching in the past, for you need as a teacher to begin where the successful experience of the world has left off. It is a clear waste for you to spend years in discovering what is already known. Moreover, you have no right to gain at the expense of your pupils what you should gain beforehand at your own expense."

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN NEW YORK.

In 1895 our great neighbor on the north had eleven Normal Schools, with a total of 8,856 students, which sent out 715 graduates. Another Normal School is soon to be opened, and the State Superintendent of Public Instruction has recommended the establishment of still another at Ithaca in connection with Cornell University. One of the State Normal Schools, that at Albany, is now a Normal College, with an extended course and with the power of conferring certain degrees. It is proposed that there shall be established at Cornell a State School of Pedagogy, intended to receive only college graduates and to train teachers for the high schools, academies, Normal Schools, and for principalships and superintendencies. This proposition has the approval of the University authorities, who would give such a school their hearty support.

Most of the Normal Schools have a two years' course, though some of them have also a course of three years. The diploma is a life certificate to teach. Of the 36,000 teachers in the State, about 12 per cent. are Normal graduates. The entrance requirements of the Normal Schools are not much higher than those of a first-class high school. New York spends annually nearly $500,000 for the support of her Normal Schools.

Training Classes.

Besides the Normal Schools, New York has a very thorough system of training classes, which are doing excellent work in fitting teachers for the country schools. About 2,500 students availed themselves of this opportunity during last year. The plan of the work is as follows: The State Superintendent designates certain convenient schools in the different counties to conduct training classes. The school so designated must—

1. Have a faculty competent to give the required instruction, the qualifications of the instructor of the teachers' class being definitely specified.
2. Furnish a room separate for the members of the training class.
3. Furnish an opportunity for the class to observe methods, and, if possible, to teach themselves.
4. Conduct the recitations in the subjects of the training class separately.
5. Maintain a class of at least ten members for the full two terms of eighteen weeks each, or thirty-six weeks in the year. There must be not less than three recitation hours of forty-five minutes each day.

The school is entitled to a compensation from the State of one dollar per week for each student taught a specified time, but no school can receive more than $450 per term.

New York supported 140 such training-classes last year, at an expense of over $63,000.

Candidates for admission must be at least sixteen years of age, must possess qualifications equal to those entitling to a third-grade certificate, and must subscribe to a declaration that they wish to engage in teaching in the public schools of New York. A course of study is prescribed by the State Department, and inspectors from that department visit the school from time to time to see that the requirements are fulfilled.

Examinations.

In January and June of each year questions are sent from the State Department, and each member of the class is given an examination. Successful candidates are given third, second, or first grade certificate to teach, according to the requirements which they have met.

I have given this comparatively full account of the teachers' training-class system of New York, because I believe it offers some valuable and practical suggestions in the solution of the question of training teachers for our State. Of this I shall speak later.

Teachers' Institutes.

The teachers' institutes of New York are exerting a powerful influence in the training of teachers. The State employs five institute conductors who devote all of their time to this work, and three special instructors who are employed a part of their time. The sessions are never less than five days in length, and the instruction is consecutive and professional, being designed more to instruct than to entertain. Last summer the State arranged for teachers' classes in connection with several summer schools, thus practically holding a three or four weeks' summer institute.

City Training-Schools.

In New York, as in our own State, there are a large number of teachers who are practically independent of the State Department of Public Instruction, so far as license is concerned. Many cities have chartered rights which have allowed them to fix the standard of qualification for their teachers, and thus in some cases the general standard of the State has not been maintained. To correct this evil the legislature "went a step farther than any of its predecessors, and placed upon the statute books a law appropriating $100,000 from the free-school fund to enable these cities to carry out an additional provision, making it obligatory upon their school authorities to employ only professionally-trained teachers after January 1st, 1897. This legislation placed the Empire State far in the lead of her sister States in the training of teachers"

In closing this discussion of the training of teachers in New York, I desire to quote some strong words from Superintendent Skinner. He says: "There is an increasing demand for professionally-trained teachers. The generous appropriations for Normal Schools from year to year are evidence of faith in their work and influence. The Normal Schools of New York State are in the fore-front of the Normal School system of the country. The wisdom of their establishment and maintenance is beyond question ; their efficiency and worth to the educational system is recognized. No longer is their work regarded as an innovation or experiment. These institutions are alert to all the demands of our educational system and are in touch with all advanced educational thought and educational practice. The professional courses comprise not alone a knowledge of psychological principles and pedagogical laws, but as well a knowledge and application of the art of teaching. There is a constant tendency toward higher standards of admission and more practical work in professional training."

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN NEW JERSEY.

Perhaps it is unnecessary to present the statistics of our own State upon this subject to this body, as all of its members are familiar with the question. In order, however, to place the facts before us for intelligent comparison, and as a starting-point for the discussion of the present and future needs of our State, I venture to give an outline of the work being done in New Jersey for the training of teachers. I shall leave the presentation of the City Training-School question to my colleague on this committee, to whom this topic has been assigned.

Our means for training teachers are the State Normal School, at Trenton, the City Training-Schools of Jersey City, Newark, Paterson, Elizabeth, Trenton and Camden, and the teachers' institute.

1. Our Normal School has an attendance of about six hundred, and graduates annually about one hundred and fifty students. It has a three years' course of study, the standard of admission being about one year below the preparation of a graduate from a first-class high school. The course of study corresponds very

closely to the theory laid down by the Committee of Fifteen, which is stated as follows:

"Professional training comprises two parts: (*a*) The science of teaching, and (*b*) the art of teaching.

"In the *science of teaching* are included (1) Psychology as a basis for principles and methods; (2) Methodology as a guide to instruction; (3) School Economy, which adjusts the conditions of work, and (4) History of Education, which gives breadth of view.

"The art of teaching is best gained: (1) by observation of good teaching; (2) by practice-teaching under criticism."

Besides the professional work thus outlined, and which is being carried out at Trenton, there is the necessary academic work, which is thorough and fundamental rather than comprehensive, and in which the teacher seeks to illustrate and enforce the principles of the science of teaching. There is no doubt that the State Normal School is fulfilling the mission of an institution for the training of teachers as efficiently as any like institution in the land.

Chancellor W. H. Payne says: "The Normal School should not merely keep an even pace with the educational thought of the times, but should be itself a leader in educational thought. It should 'allure to brighter worlds and lead the way.' In its doctrines and methods it should anticipate the needs of the times, and should give conscious and even authoritative direction to both educational theory and practice." This indicates the position that our Normal School seeks to fill. But it cannot supply the demand of our State. It is but one Normal School to one and a half millions of people, whereas New York has a Normal School for each half a million, Pennsylvania has one for each four hundred thousand, and Massachusetts has one for each two hundred and fifty thousand inhabitants.

I cannot leave this part of my report without pausing to call attention to one other fact in connection with the Normal School that is of the greatest moment in considering it as an educational factor, and that is its position as a State rather than as a local institution. Those Normal Schools that are not attached to any local system but that seek to lead and shape the educational movement of a whole State, are most successful and most pedagogical.

It is a question whether a local Normal or training-school, which takes students that have grown up in the primary, grammar and high school of its own system and prepares them to return to the schools as teachers after a pedagogical course, can ever meet our professional ideal. Is it not a system of educational inbreeding that must sooner or later bring disastrous results? But the Normal School gathers students from many sections, directs and harmonizes their educational views, ingrafting new material upon that already gained, so as to produce a broad, systematic and well-rounded teacher. A teacher with such a training certainly has broader views of education, and, it would seem, is more able to inject new life into a system to which he may become attached, and is far more likely to become a power for good in educational councils, than one trained under local conditions. President Payne is quite right when he says: "The all-important thing, therefore, is the teachers' seminary. Give us this, and our best wishes for the commonwealth will be fulfilled."

Allow me also to quote from another on this point:

"There is one influence of a Normal School, occult, frequently overlooked, yet more potent in its educational effects, perhaps, than any other, and that is its institutional pedagogical spirit. The students are removed from local social traditional influences, somewhat as the Indian taken to a school in the midst of civilization is removed from the influence of his tribal relations. It is a well-recognized fact in the Department of the Interior that one of the most difficult accomplishments is to so cultivate and strengthen the mind of the young Indian that when he returns to his people he will not relapse into tribal customs and relations. In a lesser degree this is true in the education of the civilized. Hence one of the difficult problems of the local training-school.

"It is possible for educational systems to cease to be educational and become traditional and mechanical. It is not only possible but it has come to pass in our time that systems of education in some of our cities have become so rigid that their methods, instead of being thoughtful, have become routine and imitational. Systems of tests and standards of promotion, and forms of estimating the efficiency of teachers, have been adopted that have turned the mind away from that kind of exercise that produces breadth and power, and set it to the acquirement of forms of knowledge. The old adage, 'knowledge is power,' is misleading and mischievous; you might as well say, 'tools are carpenters.' Knowledge is an instrument of power, but never can be a substitute for power. That which is truly educational gives breadth and many-sidedness of view. A proper Normal School separates its students from any particular local system. That man is the best specialist who comes to his specialty with the greatest breadth of preparation. The faculty of a Normal School is chosen for its special fitness. It is cosmopolitan in character. It gives its attention to the best principles of education regardless of set forms. The students gathered together have a common purpose; hence it happens that there grows up a pedagogical spirit, a zeal for education and a love for children which can but be broadening and far-reaching in its results, and which better fits a person to enter any system than one prepared in that system alone is fitted for it."

2. As to the special discussion of the city training-schools, I refer you to the report of my colleague.

3. Each county is entitled to an annual teachers' institute, which lasts from one to three days. While these meetings accomplish a great deal of good by way of arousing interest, by injecting new life into the teacher, by awakening an *esprit de corps* in the ranks of the profession, I think no one would speak of them as a serious means of training teachers. Doubtless all is being done that can be done with the meagre means furnished by the State for this purpose, but to my mind more liberal means should be supplied by the State, the length of the institute extended to a full week, and this be made one of the immediate means for the professional improvement of our teachers.

I have now given you a picture of the whole system of training teachers in this State. I have outlined the means of training teachers in the several countries and in various commonwealths in order that we might make comparisons and see how we stand among others upon this question. Indeed, had I time and space I could have shown the conditions in the Southern and Western States, in some of which less than one per cent. of the teachers are Normal graduates, and only a small fraction of the teachers have any professional training whatever. But it is not with low standards that New Jersey is to be measured, nor with anything but the best and most progressive that she is to be compared.

Comparisons being made on this basis, we are compelled to admit that New Jersey does not stand where she should. About sixteen per cent. of the teachers of the State are Normal graduates; in Germany and France, practically all of the teachers; in England and Canada (especially Ontario) nearly all of the teachers have professional training, though not all are graduates; in Massachusetts thirty-two per cent. are Normal graduates; in New York twelve per cent. are graduates, but it must not be forgotten that New York does far more for the training of teachers for the country schools than we do, in her institutes, in teachers' training classes, and in summer schools for teachers.

NEEDS OF NEW JERSEY.

Having made the above comparisons, the question now arises as to practical application of these lessons and suggestions for the present and future needs of our State. It seems to me clear that New Jersey must at once take steps forward or be left far behind other States in educational enterprise. We need nine hundred new teachers every year. The Normal School and all of the training-schools combined cannot furnish one-third of this number. This is a brief statement of the existing state of things, and this, it seems to me, exposes the weak place in our school system. Professionally-trained teachers are absolutely essential to the success of our schools, and we are provided with means for supplying only one-third of the required number at the most.

I wish to offer in conclusion, for your consideration, some suggestions for the remedying of this evil. I submit that—

1. *There should be more Normal Schools.*

Our Normal has already reached its full capacity as to numbers. I quote from a report of Dr. Green to the Board of Education on this point. He says: "It seems unwise materially to increase the numbers in our Normal School while our relation to practice-teaching remains unchanged. From 250 to 300 Normal students are on the list of practice-teachers at one time, while the grades in the Model School, in which practice-teaching can be exercised, will not number more than 450 pupils. No matter how efficient may be the arrangement of periods, the number of practice-teachers in each section is too large to secure the most desirable results without impairing the efficiency of the Model School, a result which would be exceedingly to be deprecated."

In the State Superintendent's report for 1895 I find the following suggestions: "I see no good reason why the State should not at once proceed to establish at least two or more Normal Schools—one in the southern and one or more in the northern end of the State. No one doubts the enormous benefits that have accrued to the educational interests of the State through the State Normal School at Trenton."

The existence of a good school in any locality always attracts students from the immediate vicinity, and consequently exerts an elevating influence upon the community most nearly at hand. Who can estimate the influence of Princeton, not simply upon the students who have studied within her halls, but also upon all persons who have lived in her vicinity? Just so a Normal School would attract more students and exert a wider educational influence upon a given locality if it is established near it. I quote again from Dr. Green:

"An examination of the enrollment of the State Normal School for 1895 shows an attendance from Burlington county of 47, from Mercer county of 100, from Middlesex county of 31, from Hunterdon county of 29—that is, 207 students from a total enrollment of 537 were registered from four counties. During the same year there were registered from Hudson county, 8; Essex county, 31; Passaic county, 13; or 52 in all. The total population of the first four counties mentioned is 250,000, in round numbers, while that of the three counties last mentioned is 773,500, in round numbers. To restate the proposition, 773,500 of the population of the State send 52 pupils to the Normal School, while 250,000 send 207 pupils to the Normal School. It will appear at once that the first four counties mentioned are those in the vicinity of our school. This is a *prima facie* evidence that a Normal School has a stronger effect upon its immediate surroundings than upon those at a distance."

There seems to be no doubt, then, that other Normal Schools would attract students that now are not reached. Moreover, the presence of a Normal School in a locality would also elevate the public mind with regard to trained teachers and create a great demand for them.

Higher Normal Training.

There is another phase of the Normal School question which might as well be stated here. There is a growing feeling in the country that there must be provided higher Normal Schools for the professional training of superintendents, principals, teachers of high schools, etc. It is true that many colleges and universities have established chairs of pedagogy, but these generally lack an important feature of pedagogical training, namely, the practice work; besides, these institutions are not in as close touch with the public schools as the Normal Schools are. Ontario, Canada, has had for some years a provincial school of pedagogy. New York has designated one of her schools as a Normal College, with an extended course culminating in a degree, and a movement is on foot to establish in

Cornell University a State school of pedagogy which would deal only with college graduates, as we have already seen. The last report of the Massachusetts State Board of Education proposes that a year's course be provided for college graduates, and that the principle of professional training be maintained for college graduates.

It will be remembered, also, that the Committee of Fifteen advocated that only college graduates should be admitted as teachers in high schools; that they should have two years of pedagogical work, the senior year in college and a year of post-graduate work.

There is need of this kind of work in New Jersey, and the State should provide such opportunity in the near future.

This would require an expenditure of money that the State may not be able at present to make. It outlines the end towards which the State should aim in the future. As it will probably be some time before such a plan can be carried out, and as something should be done at once for the better training of teachers, I propose the establishment of—

2. *Teachers' Training-Classes.*

Ontario has county Model Schools which are practically Normal Schools. No teacher can enter upon the duties of his profession in Ontario without special training. I have given at length the system of training-classes now in operation in New York State. Why could not a similar plan be adopted in New Jersey? It would not be very expensive. There are plenty of schools in the State that could meet the necessary requirements as to teachers and equipment. Thus we would soon educate a class of teachers that could take charge of our country schools, and it would not be long before we could require that no person should be allowed to teach in the State without at least some professional training. And even when the number of our Normal Schools is increased as above indicated, there would still be opportunity for teachers' classes of this kind, for we cannot hope to secure enough Normal Schools to supply all the teachers needed for many years to come.

3. *The Teachers' Institute.*

The teachers' institute should be made more efficient. The sessions should not be less than three days, and proportionally far more good could be done if they were extended to five days. Two competent instructors should be in charge during the whole institute, so that continuous, carefully-planned pedagogic work could be done. Local and other talent could be brought in as far as practicable. The work should be so thorough and practical that the teachers would feel that they had received full value for the expense they have been to. It should be inspiring and uplifting as well as instructive, so that the effects of the institute would be felt in the school-room when the teachers return to their work. There will always be a place for the institute, even when all our teachers are professionally trained, as the best means of keeping teachers progressive, well informed, and fully alive to the responsible duties of their calling. Where possible, the institute should be divided into classes, so that the instruction could be suited to the wants of the various grades of teachers.

4. *Summer Training-Classes.*

I borrow this idea from the above-mentioned report of Dr. Green. He says: "I would respectfully recommend that there should be appointed a corps of institute class-teachers, twenty-five or fifty in number. Classes of applicants for beginning the work of teaching might be formed in every county and placed in charge of one or more of these teachers for six weeks of the summer season. These institute teachers might be paid partly by the State and partly by those under their instruction, or might be paid in full either way without special strain. Through this means many young teachers who are not now conscious of the very meaning of pedagogical training would be introduced into at least an idea of what is involved therein, and directed and stimulated to higher attainments, and the Normal School would be left to do for the time being the more advanced work."

The idea of summer training-classes is not a new one, as we have already seen in the experiment which New York began last summer. It is wholly practicable, and would doubtless receive the hearty support of the teachers of New Jersey, no matter on what basis of financial support it is established.

It seems to me that if the State is not yet prepared to establish additional Normal Schools, we may at least ask for the organization of some, if not all, of the other means of professional training herein outlined. Either one of these would bring a vast amount of good to our teachers and our schools, which would more than repay the outlay.

"Good teachers," said the late Dr. Philbrick, of Boston, "and what next? There is no next."

L. Seeley.

City Normal and Training-Schools.

In the School Laws as supplied by the State to our public schools for the guidance and instruction of school officers and teachers, we find that paragraph 79 reads as follows; "There shall be a Normal School or Seminary, for the training and education of teachers in the art of instructing and governing the common schools of this State, the object of which Normal School or Seminary shall be the training and education of its pupils in such branches of knowledge and such methods of teaching and governing, as will qualify them for teachers of our common schools."

In the Regulations for the Government of the Schools of the City of Newark we find the following; "A Normal and Training School, for the training and education of teachers, shall be maintained in the Training School building, under a principal and such assistants as may be necessary. It shall consist of two grades, requiring two years to complete the course of study, and shall be conducted in all respects as a Model School. Pupils shall spend, at least, eight weeks of the Normal School year in the Training-School and, under the direction of a regular teacher, conduct class exercises, and while thus engaged, shall be subject to the same direction of the principal of the Training School as his assistants."

Our city schools needed the very work thus proposed by the *State*, more perhaps, than the rural districts, and our educational directors sought the needed relief and established a Saturday Normal School for the better education of its teachers. Its aim was to remedy the shortcomings of its teachers in the academic studies only. Its teachers below the grade of principal were required to attend its sessions every Saturday morning under the instruction of the teachers provided, until they could meet the requirements and pass a satisfactory examination. The certificate of graduation was a certificate of their ability to teach in any of the upper grades of the city schools and they were allowed to teach only in the lower grades until this license was secured.

It was recognized in 1880, that mere academic knowledge was not enough to enable the teacher to do as good work as was needed and required. The importance of a practical acquaintance with the fundamental principles which govern the development of the mind conformity to the law of nature must be had, if the child was to be rightly directed at the beginning, and those errors avoided which have ever been an insurmountable bar to his progress. The Saturday morning Normal School was transformed into a daily school and the course was one year. This broadening of its plan was a great advance. A better grade of teaching was soon apparent in the schools of the city. A brighter era was dawning. The pupil was given a limited opportunity to observe the work of the practical teacher and herself to attempt, under the regular teacher, to exercise her own ability to teach the little ones.

This phase of our Normal and Training-School continued until 1889. The conviction was, however, slowly gaining ground that we were still building on a poor foundation. We must go deeper and build broader if we would attain success, and in 1889 the last phase of its evolution took place. The Normal course was extended to two years, and made strictly professional. The high grade of admission was still maintained. Pupils must be graduates of our excellent high school, after a full course of four years, or pass an equivalent examination. Each pupil was required to spend eight weeks in the Junior year in observation and practice-teaching in the primary classes of the Training-School under the supervision and direction of the principal and his assistant teachers. The observation and practice-teaching of the Senior year was in the classrooms of the grammar schools of the city, under the direction of the principals and regular teachers of the schools selected for this purpose, and the results of this work was reported to the Normal-School. In this department of work, the pupil-teacher must receive an average of ***Fair*** as in every study of the course to graduate from the school. In its value in the rating of the standing of the graduates, it is as much as all the others combined and appointments are made strictly by this ranking. This holds out a powerful incentive to gain a high standing in this work.

A brief statement of the work of the Normal Department will show that it is accomplishing good results and is taking a high stand. To Psychology is given four periods per week of forty minutes each for forty weeks. To Pedagogy is given an equal time. To The History of Education is given one period a week during the entire course. To Moral Science is given three periods a week for one year. To Physical Geography three periods a week for twenty weeks. To English History one period a week for one year. To Political Economy and Civil Government, each four periods a week for one year.

Method, which includes History (U. S.), Geography, Arithmetic or Number, Language and Reading in each subject receives two periods a week during the entire course with daily practice by the pupils in the presentation of each subject. De Garmo's Essentials of Method is a prominent text-book throughout the entire course. Natural Science, Drawing and Music are taught during the entire course with special attention to methods of teaching and arousing interest in the minds of the pupils. Penmanship and Phonics receive attention and a systematic course of physical exercises is conducted by a competent instructor during the entire course.

The principles of Kindergartening receive marked attention and are taught by a competent teacher, a graduate of the celebrated Madame Kraus Boltes' school, three periods a week for one year. Great care is taken to present the subject in accord with the practice of its best exponents and, we think with success.

It is the consensus of the opinions of our best and more experienced teachers that the quality of the teaching done by the graduates of our City Normal and Training School, is growing better year by year. It is not the result purely of a richer academic acquirement, though that is no inconsiderable factor. It is largely due to *improved training*. The more thorough training in the intelligent presentation of elementary principles in accordance with sound mental laws is certainly leading to better elementary teaching.

By a reference to the last report of Superintendent, which I find in the State Report for 1895, I find the professional training of the teachers employed in our city schools to be as follows; College graduates 35. State certificates 1st Grade 30; State certificates, 2d Grade 17; State certificates, 3d Grade, 4; Normal School graduates 17; Special certificates 7, and graduates of our City Normal and Training School, 453.

This last statement brings an objection which has been recognized as having much force by our thoughtful teachers. It suggests that evil which in an agricultural people is called "inbreeding." If the pupils who have been reared in our city schools and never subjected to any other training become our sole reliance for the teachers of the succeeding generations, will it not result in a mental and intellectual dwarfing a narrowing of our results—a shrinkage of values. This danger, however, I think is overestimated, because our principals, who largely give direction to the kind or quality of the teaching done, are mainly the results of other than our city schools and bring in the results of a different and more comprehensive environment. The real difficulty will perhaps be found in that disposition which no method of training has succeeded in fully extirpating; I mean that disposition which has been so often observed; the persistence of the teacher in teaching as she herself was taught rather than teaching the way she was taught to teach.

Mr. Snyder Superintendent of Jersey City answers the following questions;

1. What is the value of the Training School to the schools of the city?

2. Its strong and weak points?

3. Should the Training School be developed, or should Normal Schools (State) be substituted?

1. The effect of the Training-School upon the schools of this city cannot be calculated. Indeed, I do not know how we should get along without it. We not only depend upon our Training-School for our teachers, but I believe that we get better teachers than we otherwise should.

2. Strong points. (*a.*) A city can fix its own standard of qualifications for teachers and as it furnishes the facilities, can require teachers to possess these qualifications. Without the Training School there would be a strong tendency, and indeed in the past, has been, to appoint untrained teachers. Oftentimes, there has been a necessity to do so.

(*b.*) Knowing just what particular lines of work need to be developed in a city, the city may attain its object by the influence of the Training-School upon the pupil teachers. The city thus succeeds in having work done as it desires by teaching the pupil-teachers such subjects and such methods as it approves.

(*c.*) Financial. The city is able to secure better teachers at smaller cost. From the standpoint of the teacher, this may be regarded as an objection, because teachers, as a rule, are underpaid. I mention it, however, as an advantage from my point of view, because she who desires to be a teacher need not go to the expense or trouble of taking her training away from home.

(*d.*) The city Training-School affords the pupil teachers much more opportunity for practice than a Normal School. As it is directly connected with the schools of the city, the classes of other schools may be used for this purpose. This is an advantage, inasmuch as so many young teachers fail in properly disciplining classes. This is, of course, very largely due to want of the proper kind and a sufficient amount of practice.

2. Weak points. (*a.*) It sometimes happens that a city does not provide sufficient training for its pupil-teachers or does not properly equip its Training School.

(*b.*) Skilled trainers of teachers are not always employed.

(*c.*) There is sometimes a tendency to self-sufficiency. There is sometimes danger that there may not be sufficient study and inspection of advanced work or other systems.

These objections, I ought to say, are not really objections to the city Training-School system, but are objections to ***weak*** city Training Schools and will all vanish if a city Training School is properly organized and maintained.

3. I am very strongly in favor of maintaining both city Training Schools and Normal Schools, but I also believe that in this State the Normal Schools should be more numerous than they are, and should be intimately connected not only with city Training Schools, but with the public school system of the entire State. Of course, if the Normal Schools require a sufficiently high standard of admisssion and of graduation, it may be said that the city Training School may be dispensed with in the city in which the Normal School is located, but this would be true, at the most, of very few cities of the State. Hence, it would seem to me to be wiser policy to maintain both classes of Training-Schools. This question is evidently a live question in Boston. In his report, received to-day, Superintendent Seaver briefly alludes to it.

The consensus of opinion then would be, as it seems to me, that the Training-School is absolutely essential to the successful conduct of our public schools. Massachusetts has already come to the conclusion that the Normal School course needs a special Training-School to round out the work of preparing the teacher. "The New England Association of School Superintendents" takes the high ground that the Normal School or some satisfactory equivalent should be insisted on as a prerequisite for admission to a local Training-School.

The Training Schools had their origin in the necessities of the community, and the need of them has not ceased. The State Normal School has not in the past, and cannot in the future supply this need. The conditions which prevail in the class rooms of our city schools are never obtained in the classrooms of a Model School. As a logical result of these facts, the multiplication of State Normal Schools will never obviate the necessity of the city schools. There is urgent need of more Normal Schools in our State not so much for the relief of our city schools as to meet the growing demand for more competent teachers, which meets us at every turn. And the standard of admission should be made higher. The standard of academic acquirement should never be less than a full High School course to entitle the applicant to admission to a Normal School. The city Training School starting with the advantage of such a grade of academic acquirement, gives to the aspirant for a teacher's vocation a better opportunity to acquire that empirical knowledge needed, than a State Normal School can ever supply. It comes nearest to that clinical experience which the great hospitals of our land furnish to the graduates from our medical schools. It brings the pupil-teachers directly in contact with the actual conditions of the school-room, and gives them the opportunity to observe the methods of an experienced teacher, and under her guidance to make their own attempts to discipline the class. And here, as everywhere, "*experientia docet.*"

It has also a reflex influence upon Boards of Education and on the community at large. Its tendency is to lead to a demand for the services of a more highly educated and better trained class of teachers. It comes nearer to the far-sighted anticipations of our legislators in giving *training* its proper place beside *education*. Those Training Schools, which maintain a Normal School upon this high grade of admission and give a proper amount of practice teaching should in the present state of affairs receive some State recognition of its diplomas, which would guarantee their holders some professional status.

JOSEPH CLARK,
J. WILMER KENNEDY.

NOTE - On the day the printing of this Report should have been completed, and after the program and the other matter were in type, Superintendent Snyder wrote that he could not prepare his report on Grading and Promoting Pupils.

Those who had been asked to discuss Superintendent Snyder's paper have been asked to prepare independently, notwithstanding the shortness of the time.

J. M. GREEN.

THE NORMAL SCHOOL AT OSWEGO, N. Y.

EXTRACT FROM CIRCULAR OF INFORMATION No. 8, 1891, BUREAU OF EDUCATION, WASHINGTON, D. C.

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CHAPTER IV.

THE NORMAL SCHOOL AT OSWEGO, N. Y.

The history of the normal school at Oswego, N. Y., constitutes an important chapter not only in the history of the training of teachers, but in the history of the public schools of this country. It originated, indeed, out of the necessities of the public schools of Oswego. In the spring of 1853 these schools were organized and consolidated under a board of education. Under the new arrangement a mixed system of schools went into operation, and a close classification was soon adopted. So thoroughly was this perfected that each teacher had but a single class of children of nearly the same age and of the same stage of advancement. Every grade had the same daily programme, so that the superintendent could tell at any given hour of the day exactly what exercises were going on in any school in the city. All promotions were made upon the basis of examinations conducted under the direction of the superintendent, who prepared all the questions and marked all the answers on a scale of ten. The standings were published in the annual report.

But Mr. E. A. Sheldon, who had been elected superintendent of schools in 1853, and who had originated this educational machine, was not satisfied with it. It seemed to him that something was wanted to give it life. As a mere machine, it was, indeed, worthy of all admiration. The definite tasks assigned to each teacher and pupil, each hour in the day, each day in the week, each week in the month, each month in the year, and each year in the course, were performed with praiseworthy exactness. Every rule and every definition was committed to memory with an exactness that defied criticism and applied with wonderful celerity. The system was, indeed, a perfect body, but it was dead, or rather it had never been alive. Words, words, words, were thrown into the hopper and the grist was nothing but words. The children could answer with great readiness all questions relating to what they had learned in their text books, but outside of their textbooks they were helpless. In a word, the system was an excellent machine for transferring the utmost possible amount of text book information into the minds of the children, but as a means of developing latent powers, of cultivating permanent intellectual interest, of quickening and expanding the whole intellectual life, it was very defective indeed.

Mr. Sheldon began to be vaguely conscious of this without knowing how to remedy it. He had not given much attention to psychology, and had little acquaintance with educational theories. But the whole bent of his mind, and all the circumstances of his early life, led him to insist that an education should be real, that it should be so related to the work of life as to be practical in the best sense of the word. With that deep love of humanity which has been the motive of all great teachers, he improved the opportunity offered by some months of leisure in 1848 to look into the condition of the poor in Oswego. The ignorance and misery which he found among them amazed him. Day after day he was to be found in the poorest and most wretched parts of the city, becoming acquainted with the wants and miseries of the poor. Full of pity for them he induced some of his friends to help organize an "Orphan and Free School Association," whose object was to found a home for the orphans and to enable the poorer children of Oswego to go to school. Through the influence of the association a room was rented for a school, and to his own surprise and regret, he found everyone looking to him to take charge of it. And so it happened that in the winter of 1848 and 1849 he took charge of his first school—120 "wild Irish boys and girls of all ages, from 5 to 21," "utterly rude and untrained."

It was inevitable that such a school and such pupils would make a lasting impression upon such a man. To him, evidently, education was not a mere external thing, giving a certain smoothness and polish to the surface and leaving the interior unchanged. What his "wild Irish boys and girls" needed, what all men needed, he felt, was an education that prepares for the stern work of life, an education that animates, energizes and transforms the entire man. He felt that there was a terrible wrong in loading the memories of boys and girls with words, and calling it preparation for life. The feeling grew upon him that it would be better to bring the minds of his pupils into more direct contact with nature and reality; in a word, that the educational engine should be reversed, and instead of going from words to ideas, the effort should be first to develop ideas in the minds of children, and then encourage them to express them in words of their own. The suggestions in reference to "object lessons," in Page's "Theory and Practice of Teaching," the only work on pedagogy with which he was acquainted seemed to him to look in the right direction. Accordingly he undertook to carry them out in his schools, but the results were not very satisfactory. The pupils continued practically to regard their lessons in geography, grammar, and arithmetic as so many exercises of the memory They continued to memorize rules and definitions, and to apply them They could not get ideas from their text books and express them in their own language. In spite of all efforts to the contrary, they persisted in going to their recitations with the language of their text books rather than their own. They found it easier to memorize than to think. In the hope of breaking up this tendency, Mr. Sheldon had an edition of the geography in use published without any text, containing only the maps and pictures. But his teachers found it difficult to get along without their accustomed helps. They needed both facilities and direction, and Mr. Sheldon felt himself unable to give them either to his satisfaction. About this time he received a visit from the superintendent of another city in the State whose opinions were undergoing the same revolution as his own, and they resolved to make a beginning in the way of providing the facilities they thought their teachers required in order to do what they regarded as the proper kind of work. Mr. Sheldon was to prepare a set of reading charts and his friend a set of color charts. Shortly after this he visited the educational department of Canada at Toronto, where to his surprise and delight he found much more than he had ever hoped for. There were apparatus, charts, pictures for aid in teaching nearly every subject, books discussing educational principles and methods, and manuals to guide teachers in their work. There were natural history pictures, and pictures to aid in giving moral and religious instruction, published in London by the "Society for the Promotion of Knowledge;" a "Manual of Elementary Instruction" and "Lessons on Objects," prepared by Miss Elizabeth Mayo and her brother, Dr. Mayo. The latter was a distinguished English scholar and teacher, and a friend and pupil of Pestalozzi, with whom he had spent some time at Yverdun, and with whose ideas he had become thoroughly imbued. Through his influence, the "Home and Colonial Training Institution" was established at Gray's Inn Road, London. In this school were employed such men as Krüsi, the son of Pestalozzi's associate teacher, and Renier, who was also associated with Pestalozzi at Yverdun. Indeed, the institution was an embodiment of Pestalozzi's ideas and principles. It consisted of a school for training teachers and a school of practice, and it sent out thousands of teachers who zealously disseminated Pestalozzi's ideas. Under its patronage and direction many publications were issued intended to aid teachers in oral and development work. For example, there were the books of Miss Mayo already mentioned; "Lessons on Numbers," by Renier; "Model Lessons," "Information on Common Objects," "Manual for Teachers of Infant Schools," "Graduated Course of Instruction for Infant Schools and Nurseries." This wonderful museum was the result of the labors of Dr. Ryerson, who as minister of education for Canada, had collected the best educational tools he could find in the various countries of Europe.

This museum helped Mr. Sheldon to see what he wanted to do. When he returned to Oswego he resolved to thoroughly reconstruct the course of instruction and radically change the methods of teaching in the schools under his supervision. He resolved to begin this reformation at the bottom of the ladder and go up step by step. He accordingly laid out a detailed plan of work for the primary schools based on *Pestalozzian* principles.

I regret very much that the limits within which I am obliged to confine myself make it impossible for me to present this course of study without abbreviation. Marking, as it does, an epoch in the history of the public schools of this country, it well deserves the careful attention of those who are interested in our educational history. But for the details of the course I am obliged to refer my readers to the seventh annual report of the board of education, of Oswego, which is indeed almost entirely filled with a statement and explanation of the proposed changes.

The principles upon which the new course was based and the aims it sought to realize may be briefly stated. Mr. Sheldon quoted with approbation the statement of principles made by the "Home and Colonial Infant and Juvenile School Society," of London, as underlying its system of primary instruction. That statement was as follows:

> That as the different faculties of children are developed at different periods, care should be taken to adapt their lessons to the state of their minds, in order that all the faculties may be called out in right order.
>
> That the education of the mind must begin when the exercise of the mind begins, and should follow precisely, both in degree and amount, the natural order of its development.
>
> That education consists, not in the amount which you can put into the mind of a child from without, but in the amount which it can gain from its own development and exercise from within.

The object of the plan of studies was stated to be "not so much to impart information as to educate the senses, arouse, quicken, and develop the perceptive and conceptive faculties, lead the children to observe, awaken a spirit of inquiry."

When Mr. Sheldon attempted to put this scheme into operation his teachers stoutly resisted. They said: "We find it more than we can do to accomplish all that is now required, and we have only reading, spelling, arithmetic, grammar, and geography." The superintendent replied: "I expect you will do the work required in these branches with very much more ease than before, and in a much more rational and efficient way." The sequel proved that he was right, as the teachers frankly admitted.

The first year after the introduction of the new course of study Mr. Sheldon gave all his time and energy to the introduction of the new methods into the first year or lowest grade of the primary school. He met the teachers of this grade every Saturday, and during the following week he went through the schools of this grade, encouraging and aiding them in carrying out the instructions given the preceding Saturday. The second year he pursued the same plan with the next higher grade.

By this time the work began to attract attention outside Oswego and the teachers thus trained were offered salaries in advance of those which the Oswego board felt disposed to give. Mr. Sheldon realized that he was trying to fill a tub whose bottom was full of holes.

found that he was training teachers for the schools of other cities, and that if the wants of his own schools were to be supplied some method must be devised for supplying all vacancies with trained teachers.

With this object in view he proposed to his board to establish a department connected with the public-school system for the training of teachers. They readily assented. Accordingly, on the motion of the committee on teachers for the year 1860, the following resolutions were adopted:

Resolved, That, in connection with the high school, there be organized a department composed of graduates of this school and persons from abroad who may apply for admission, to be styled the Model Primary School Teachers' Department, the object of which shall be to prepare teachers for the important work of primary instruction.

Resolved, That no person shall be admitted into this department who does not hold a certificate of graduation from the Oswego high school, or from some institution whose course of study and mental discipline are equally thorough, or who shall not on examination give evidence that she has thoroughly mastered those English branches usually taught in our best academies and high schools, and that she sustains a good moral character.

Resolved, That the time of this course shall be one year, and shall embrace the following subjects of study.

FIRST TERM.—A review of botany, mental philosophy, zoölogy, and linear drawing in its practical application in delineating objects in nature on the blackboard.

SECOND TERM.—Mineralogy, and review of botany continued, and moral philosophy begun; linear drawing, as last term.

THIRD TERM.—Moral philosophy and mineralogy continued; drawing as before.

There shall also be a course of reading, to be continued through the year, consisting of such standard works on the theory and practice of teaching as the board shall approve.

Resolved, That Primary School No. 2, located in the high-school building, be regarded as a model or experimental school, to be taught by the members of the model teachers' class, under the superintendence of such a teacher as the board shall provide.

Resolved, That the division of time between study, recitation, and practice in teaching shall be arranged as may seem at the time best to subserve the interests of the class and the school.

Resolved, That a diploma or certificate of graduation be awarded to all those who pass through the required course of this department, and show in their practice in the schoolroom an aptness and ability to teach; and that the necessary steps be taken to entitle the holder of such certificate to equal rank and privileges with those holding State certificates.

Resolved, That the terms of tuition for the admission of foreign pupils into this teachers' department shall be $8 per term, payable in advance.

Resolved, That the secretary of this board be, and the same is hereby, directed to correspond immediately with the principal of the training school for the preparation of teachers for primary instruction, under the patronage of the Home and Colonial School Society in the city of London, with a view of securing a teacher of high order, one familiar with the system of primary teaching as now adopted in our schools, and capable of taking charge of and instructing a teachers' class such as the foregoing resolutions contemplate; and that he make all the necessary arrangements for entering upon the proposed plan on the opening of the spring term

The prominence given to subjects in natural science in this course of study will not escape the attention of the careful reader.[*] The ground of this course was that intending teachers might be thoroughly equipped for training the observing powers of their pupils, and interesting them in natural objects.

The resolution to import a teacher from London was not at once concurred in by the board. Mr. Sheldon resolved to do it, because there was no one in this country who was familiar with the work to be done. The board hesitated, on the ground that it would involve additional expense, but when he assured them that it should not add one dollar to their expenses they withdrew their objections.[†]

Mr. Sheldon accordingly immediately wrote to Mr. Reynolds, the secretary of the Home and Colonial Society. As he was writing the letter, Hon. A. C. Mattoon, chairman of the teachers' committee of the board of education, said: "Tell them to send us one who is able to introduce the new methods in America." Precisely that was done when Miss Margaret E. M. Jones, who had been for 15 years engaged in the training of teachers in that institution, was sent to take charge of the teachers' department in the public schools of Oswego. Dr. Sheldon says that she "was a woman of rare intellectual culture, with a clear and penetrating mind, having a broad grasp of educational principles, with the ability to make them clear to her pupils."

The school opened the 1st of May, 1861, with 9 pupils. These received diplomas at the end of the year, and a large number of the teachers of the Oswego public schools had availed themselves of the instruction given. The board were pleased with the work and there was no disposition to give up the undertaking. Miss Jones, whose contract expired at the end of the year, was prevailed upon to stay six months longer, and Professor Krüsi, who, it will be remembered, had been connected with the Home and Colonial Institution, was invited to Oswego to assist her. Other assistance was also provided for, and the school opened the second year with a larger class and a larger corps of teachers.

Mr. Sheldon's observations of the results of the new methods on both teachers and pupils, led him to believe that their general adoption in the schools of the country was a matter of the highest importance.

Accordingly, at his suggestion, in December, 1861, the board of education sent an invitation to some of the leading educators in different States to come to Oswego to observe the practical workings of the new methods.

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[*] Mr. Sheldon summarized the course as consisting of mental and natural sciences and the art of teaching by object lessons.

[†] He was able to make this assertion good, because a number of his teachers agreed to relinquish half their salary for a year in consideration of the benefit they hoped to receive from the training class, and also because the salaries of a number of teachers in the primary school were saved through the employment of pupil teachers from the training class.

This invitation was cordially responded to, and at the appointed time a goodly number of educators were present.

Mr. Sheldon's address is worthy of being quoted in full. He spoke as follows:

For more than eight years we have been striving to improve our schools, and when we compare them with what they were at the time of their organization we feel that a decided progress has been made; but never have their deficiencies been so apparent as at the present moment. Whatever the improvement, it certainly has not kept pace with our ideas of what it ought to be.

We have asked you here to examine a system of instruction we have been endeavoring to incorporate into our schools, for the origin of which we claim no credit; neither do we claim that the principles of this system are new in this country. For years they have been quietly and almost imperceptibly creeping into our educational theories, and have, although in an isolated and disjointed manner, made their way into our best schools. Good teachers everywhere are working more or less in accordance with these principles, modified perhaps in some degree, and are thus preparing the way for a system of primary education, of which they constitute the very web and woof. It is this feature which we claim as new in this country. We have never had any system of primary education, based on sound philosophical principles, carried out in a definite and well-arranged course. Whether such is the system to which we now call your attention we leave you to judge; it is for this purpose we have presumed to invite you here to-day. Should your judgment, after a careful investigation, accord with our own, it can but lead to a complete revolution in our methods of teaching; it will make teaching a profession, a title it has yet to earn.

Among those who accepted this invitation were David N. Camp, State superintendent of schools in Connecticut, and principal of the State Normal School; D. H. Cochrane, principal of the Albany State Normal School; William F. Phelps, principal of the State Normal School at Trenton, N. J., and Miss L. E. Ketchum, principal of the experimental department of the State Normal School at Bloomington, Ill.

A special committee was appointed to prepare a report. After an examination of three days, spent for the most part in observing lessons which were intended to illustrate methods of teaching, the committee, through its chairman, Professor Phelps, made a long and able report. I have only space to quote its conclusion. It is as follows:

(1) That the principles of that system are philosophical and sound; that they are founded in, and are in harmony with, the nature of man, and hence are best adapted to secure him such an education as will conduce in the highest degree to his welfare and happiness, present and future.

(2) That the particular methods of instruction presented in the exercises before us, as illustrative of these principles, merit and receive our hearty approbation, subject to such modification as experience and the characteristics of our people may determine to be wise and expedient.

In conclusion, the committee beg leave to present, in the form of resolutions, the following recommendations:

Resolved, That in the opinion of your committee the system of object teaching is admirably adapted to cultivate the perceptive faculties of the child, to furnish him with clear conceptions and the power of accurate expression, and thus to prepare him for the prosecution of the sciences or the pursuits of active life; and that the committee do *recommend the adoption of the system in whole or in part, wherever such introduction is practicable.*

Resolved, That the system of primary education, which substitutes in great measure the teachers for the book, demands in its instructors varied knowledge and thorough culture; and that attempts to introduce it by those who do not clearly comprehend its principles, and who have not been trained in its methods, can only result in failure.

Two years after this (in 1863), thanks to the opposition of Dr. H. B. Wilbur, superintendent of the New York State Asylum for Imbeciles, the Oswego methods received a still more emphatic commendation from a committee representing a much wider constituency. Dr. Wilbur was one of the gentlemen who accepted the invitation of the Oswego board, and was a member of the committee whose chairman made the report, the conclusion of which I have just quoted. It seems that he did not concur in it. Accordingly, at a meeting of the New York State Teachers' Association, held at Rochester in 1863, he read "a most sarcastic and vindictive paper" against Mr. Sheldon, his schools, and methods. At the next meeting of the National Educational Association Dr. Wilbur made a still more scathing criticism of the "Oswego System of Object Instruction." As a result of this paper a committee, consisting of some of the ablest educators in the country, was appointed to make a thorough examination of the system of instruction pursued at Oswego, and report at its next meeting.* Professor Greene accordingly went to Oswego and spent a week, and embodied the results of his very careful study of the Oswego system in a long and able report which he read on behalf of the committee before the National Education Association, held at Harrisburg, Pa., in the summer of 1865.†

The report discusses three questions:

(1) What place do external objects hold in the acquisition of knowledge? Are they the exclusive source of our knowledge?

(2) So far as our knowledge is obtained from external objects as a source, how far can any educational processes facilitate the acquisition of it?

(3) Are the measures adopted at Oswego in accordance with the general principles resulting from these inquiries?

After answering the first question in the negative, the report proceeds to discuss the second question. After some preliminary statements and definitions not necessary to be repeated here, the report proceeds as follows.

While an external object may be viewed by thousands in common, the conception of it addresses itself only to the individual consciousness. My conception is mine alone: the reward of careless observation is imperfect; of attentive, careful, an varied observation if correct; between mine and yours a great gulf is fixed. No man can pass from mine to yours or from yours to mine. Neither in any proper sense of the term can mine be conveyed to you, nor yours to me. Words do not convey thoughts; they are not the vehicles of thoughts in any true sense of that term; a word is simply a common symbol which each associates with his own conception.

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* The committee consisted of the following gentlemen: Barnas Sears, D. D., Providence, R. I.; Prof. S. S. Greene, Providence, R. I.; J. L. Pickard, at that time superintendent of schools in Chicago; J. D. Philbrick, superintendent of schools in Boston, Mass.; David N. Camp, State superintendent of schools in Connecticut; R. Edward principal normal school, Illinois, and C. L. Pennell, St. Louis, Mo.

† This report was published in pamphlet form by the National Teachers' Association. It is well worthy of careful study, not only by the student of educational history, but by the teacher who wishes to see a delightfully lucid exposition of th *philosophy* of object lessons.

Neither can I compare mine with yours except through mediation of external objects. And then how do I know that they are alike—that a measure called a foot, for instance, seems as long to you as to me? My conception of a new object, which you and I observe together, may be very imperfect. By it, I may attribute to the object what does not belong to it, take from it what does, distort its form or otherwile pervert it. Suppose now, at the time of observation, we agree upon a word as a sign or symbol for the object or the conception. The object is withdrawn; the conception only remains, imperfect in my case, complete and vivid in yours. The sign is employed. Does it bring back the original object? By no means. Does it convey my conception to your mind? Nothing of the kind; you would be disgusted at the shapeless image. Does it convey yours to me? No; I should be delighted at the sight. What does it effect? It becomes the occasion for each to call up his own conception. Does each now contemplate the same thing? What multitudes of dissimilar images instantly spring up at the announcement of the same symbol—dissimilar not because of anything in the one source whence they are derived, but because either of inattentive and imperfect observation of that source, or of some constitutional or habitual defect in the use of the perceptive faculty. What must be the actual condition of children, then, at the proper age to enter school?

After pointing out the fact that the number of clear and definite conceptions in the minds of children when they start to school is very likely to be overrated, and that current modes of teaching concerned themselves for the most part with filling the memory with symbols without seeing to it that these symbols were used as the signs of clear and definite conceptions, it proceeds as follows:

Now against all this way of teaching language, object teaching, in any proper sense of the term, raises an earnest and perpetual protest.

But what is object teaching? Not that so-called object teaching which is confined to a few blocks and cards to be taken from the teacher's desk at set times, to exhibit a limited round of angles, triangles, squares, cubes, cones, pyramids, or circles; not that which requires the pupil to take some model of an object or some drawn out merely as a specimen, and commit it to memory; not is it that injudicious method which some teachers have adopted in order to be thorough, that leads them to develop distinctions which are suited only to the [illegible] science; nor is it a foolish adherence to the use of actual objects when [illegible] conceptions have been formed and may take the place of physical forms; nor is it that excessive talking about objects which makes the teacher do everything and leaves the child to do nothing, that assigns no task to be performed—a most wretched and reprehensible practice; nor, again, is it that which makes a few oral lessons, without anything else, the entire work of the school.

But it is that which takes into account the whole realm of nature and art, so far as the child has examined it, assumes as known only what the child knows, not what the teacher knows, and works from the well known to the [illegible] known, and so onward and upward till the learner can enter the realm of science or abstract thought. It is that which develops the abstract from the concrete, which develops the idea, then gives the term. It is that which appeals to the intelligence of the child, and that through the senses, until [illegible] conceptions are formed, and then uses these conceptions as [illegible] and [illegible]. It is that which follows nature's order—the thing, the conception, the word, so that when this order is reversed the chain of connection shall not be broken. The word shall instantly occasion the conception, and the conception shall be accompanied with the firm conviction of a corresponding external reality. * * * It is that which cultivates expression as an answer to an inward pressing want, rather than a fanciful collection of pretty phrases culled from different authors, and having the peculiar merit of sounding well. It is that which makes the school a place where the child comes in contact with realities just such as appeal to his common sense, as when he roamed at pleasure in the fields. * * * It is that which relieves the child's task only by making it intelligible and possible, not by taking the burden from him. It bids him examine for himself, discriminate for himself, and express for himself, the teacher the while standing by to give hints and suggestions, not to relieve the labor. In short, it is that which addresses itself directly to the eye, external or internal, which summons to its aid things present or things absent, things past or things to come, and bids them yield the lessons which they infold; which deals with actual existence and not with empty dreams—a living realism and not a fossil dogmatism. It is to be introduced in a systematic way if it can be done, without much form where system is impracticable, but introduced it should be in some way everywhere. * * *

Does the plan pursued at Oswego conform to these general principles? We answer unhesitatingly, in the main it does. It may not be right in all its philosophy or in all its practice. Whether the practice is better than the philosophy, or the philosophy than the practice, we will not pretend to say. Neither is it our object or purpose to appear as champions of the system, to defend it against attacks, or to cover up what is faulty. We simply appear to report it and our opinions upon it, so far as the examinations of one week will enable us to do so. * * * The training school, which forms a prominent feature of the system, is at present established in the Fourth ward school building. Besides the training school this building contains a city primary, with its classes A, B, C, a junior A, B, C, and a senior A, B, C. Each primary and each junior school is provided with a permanent principal and permanent assistant for each of the classes. In the Fourth ward school, however, only one assistant is permanently appointed. The place of the second assistant is supplied from the training school. The exercises in these two grades are the same throughout the city, except in the building of the training school, where additional exercises, hereafter to be described, are introduced. In this building, then, we shall find the ordinary lessons in "object teaching," as well as the peculiar lessons of the training school. Let us enter any primary school at the beginning of the year, with the C class, at the age of 5, fresh from home life, for the first time to enter upon school duties. They come with their slates and pencils, and this is all. Their first exercise is not to face the alphabet arranged in vertical or horizontal columns, and echo the names of the letters after the teacher in response to the question, "What is that?"—a question that the teacher knows they can not answer, and therefore ought not to ask; but some familiar object, one of the boys of the class, it may be, is placed before them and called upon to raise his hand; the class do the same. This is beginning with the known. Then he is called upon to raise his right hand. This may be an advance into the obscurely known. The class do the same if they can make the proper distinction; if not, the first lesson marks clearly the distinction between the right hand and the left. Something real and tangible is done. The children can now distinguish between the right ear and the left ear, the right eye and the left eye. Here is acquired knowledge applied.

But what of their slates? The teacher may first give a lesson, practical of course, on the use of the slate and pencil. Standing at the blackboard, she utters the sound represented by some letter, as *t*. The class utters it. They repeat it till the sound becomes a distinct object to the ear. She then prints upon the board the letter *t*. This becomes an object to the eye. She points to it and gives the sound, they repeat *the sound. She points* again, they repeat. She gives the sound, they point. Two *objects are associated.* Now in their seats the letter t is to be made upon their slates till the next lesson is given. In this second lesson, an advance is made upon the parts of the human body, or another sound, as the short sound of *a* is given, then the character as before. Now the two sounds are put together, then the two letters. Two objects are combined and we have the word *at*. But before this lesson is given, the children go through with a series of physical exercises. Perhaps, next, the whole class is sent to the sides of the room. Here is a narrow shelf answering both as a table and a ledge to the blackboard. Under this are apartments containing beans. The children take them one by one and count. They arrange them in sets of two or three, etc. They unite one and one, that is bean to bean, one and two, etc. They take away one from two, one from three, and so on. They now return to their seats and make marks upon their slates, to take the place of the beans. In short this primary room is a busy workshop, not one idle moment.

One year is passed in this manner. The children have learned many useful lessons; have mastered a set of reading cards; have learned to spell many words involving the short sounds of vowels and most of the consonants. They have lessons on form and color, on place and size, on drawing, or moral conduct, and these are changed once in two weeks.

They are now promoted to the B class. They commence reading from the primer. They can write upon their slates and form tables. They have object lessons more difficult and more interesting. They can read the statement of the facts developed as they are drawn off upon the board. They can write them themselves. They now learn to make their own record of facts upon their slates. * * * They make out numerical tables for addition and subtraction, not by copying, but by actual combinations with beans or otherwise. They thus realize these tables. In short, a mingling of object lessons with writing, spelling, reading, singing, physical exercise, adding, subtracting, multiplying, dividing, elementary geography, and natural history, occupies their attention through the first three years. All the lessons are given objectively. The children realize what they learn; and this is not the mere theory of the system; it is, in the main, the actual working of the plan. * * *

In the junior grade, similar but more advanced lessons are given, until the pupils are prepared for the senior schools, where these peculiar characteristics cease. And yet, be it remembered that all the exercises in the ordinary school work are intended to be true object lessons.

Let us now pass to the training school. Here, it should be borne in mind, are regular primary and junior schools under permanent teachers, who act the part both of model teachers and critics before the members of the normal school, or training class. The members of this class become alternately pupils and teachers, known under the name of pupil teachers. At the beginning of the term they are assigned to act as assistants one-half day and as pupils the other, alternating with each other during the term, so that each may go through every exercise. The regular teacher gives a lesson to the class. The assistants observe and mark the methods as models for imitation both as respects the steps in the lesson and the management of the class under instruction. One of the assistants or pupil teachers next gives a lesson. She is now under a double criticism; first from her equals, the other pupil teachers present; and, second, from the regular teacher. She is not doing imitations but real teaching. She has not first to imagine that a class of adults is a class of children, and then give a specimen lesson. She has a class of children, sent to school for real purposes by parents who entertain other views than to have their sons and daughters made mere subjects for experimenting.

There is work done under the feeling of responsibility, with all the natural desire to succeed, nay, to excel.

Under these circumstances the merits or defects of her lesson will be pretty surely made known to her. * *

But now the scene changes. These pupil teachers return to the room of the training class, and their places are supplied by the remaining set. In this room the theory

> of teaching is discussed and exemplified by practical lessons given by the normal teachers to small classes of children brought in from the primary or junior grades. These lessons are to be drawn off by the class and examined as illustrations of the theory. Then, again, a pupil is called upon to give a lesson to a similar class, while both the training class and teacher act as critics. The points of excellence and of defect are freely discussed, and practical hints as to the method of the lesson, its effects upon the class, etc., are freely given. Under this kind of training a most efficient corps of teachers is prepared to fill all vacancies and give increased vitality to the schools throughout the city.
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> Occasionally the sentences and forms of expression had a bookish aspect and lacked spontaneousness, and there were enough of them, if captiously seized upon, to make the method appear ridiculous.[1] So, again, expressions and terms were sometimes evolved which would not be out of place in a scientific treatise. * * *
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> These, however, at most were but spots on the face of the sun. The whole plan was admirable in theory and in practice.

These long extracts enable the reader to see not only what Professor Greene thought of the Oswego methods but why he thought so; and they contain not only an admirable exposition of the theory upon which, in his judgment, object teaching is based, but a detailed account of the modes in which the Oswego system conformed to it. Truly Dr. Wilbur did the cause of education very substantial service in occasioning so capable and painstaking a witness to make a careful and thorough study of the Oswego system.

Since pupils outside Oswego were seeking admission into the training school, and since its graduates were supplying the schools of other places with teachers, the Oswego board applied to the legislature for aid from the State in supporting their training schools. Their application was heartily seconded by Hon. Victor M. Rice, who was then State superintendent of public instruction. Accordingly, on the 4th of March, 1863, the legislature of the State of New York passed an act appropriating $3,000 annually for two years to the support of the training school at Oswego, on condition that the people of the city furnish buildings and grounds and other necessary accommodations within one year from the passage of the act, and that 50 teachers intending to teach in the common schools of the State should be instructed in it for as much as 10 weeks in each year, and that each senatorial district should be entitled to send annually two first-class teachers on the appointment of the State superintendent.

In a circular dated the 8th of February, 1864, State Superintendent Rice announced that the school would be opened on the 17th day of April, following. The circular contained a statement of the objects of the school, the course of instruction, and the conditions of admission. Of the course of study it is only necessary to say that it still consisted substantially of "mental and natural science, and the art of teaching by object lessons." Candidates for appointment were required to be not less than 17 years of age, to give evidence of superior health, of good moral character, and of at least fair natural ability. They had

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[1] I think this explains Dr. Wilbur's articles.

ess a thorough knowledge of reading, spelling, arithmetic, geog-
and grammar, and a fair knowledge of algebra as far as quad-
quations, the first book of geometry, the history of the United
, and the elements of natural philosophy.

ording to an act passed the 7th of April, 1866, the city training
became a State normal and training school, providing certain
ons were complied with, and this having been done, the buildings,
ls, and appliances of the school were accepted by the State
27, 1867.

history of the institution from that date to the present need not
us long. Undoubtedly there has been growth, but that has
place along the line, and in the direction already indicated.

most instructive changes have taken place in the organization of
ool. At the outset, as we have seen, the school was organized
trictly professional school. Candidates for admission were re-
to have pursued a course of study equal in thoroughness and
to that pursued in the best high schools of the State. But the
of Oswego soon discovered that the knowledge of such students
t sufficiently thorough, or at least that a sufficient number of
with a sufficiently thorough preparation, could not be found to
school on that plan. Accordingly, in 1865 it was decided to add
se of study in the English branches to the more strictly profes
work. In 1867 the ancient and modern languages were added.

he beginning of this chapter, I said that the history of the normal
at Oswego constituted an important chapter, not only in the
of the training of teachers, but in the history of the public schools
country. It constitutes no part of my plan to present in detail
ounds of the last statement. Nor is it necessary to do so, to con
nyone of its truth who is even tolerably well acquainted with our
ional history for the last 25 years. Any such person knows that
thods of teaching in our large towns and cities have radically
ed within that period, and that the change has been in the direc-
the reforms first introduced into the public schools through the
e school at Oswego. In his annual report made at the close of
ond year after the adoption of the new methods, Mr. Sheldon
“During the past year we have been honored by visits from many
most prominent educators in the country for the purpose of wit-
g the practical working of the system, and learning something of
ciples in detail, and without a single exception it has met with
nost hearty approbation. It is rapidly gaining favor in every
r. It has already been adopted in several of our leading cities and
l schools, and wherever it goes it meets with a most enthusiastic
ion. Among the cities that have adopted it are New York, Cin-
i, Toledo, Syracuse, and Paterson.” Evidently there was a general
ofound dissatisfaction with current methods. The eagerness with
the new system was examined and the readiness with which it was

introduced in cities at such great distances from each other, shows that thoughtful educators all over the country were in a state of mind very similiar to Mr. Sheldon's when he went to Toronto, but as a matter of fact the new methods were introduced into this country through the schools of Oswego.

That this institution has exercised a profound influence upon training schools for teachers, is just as little open to question. At the suggestion of Principal William F. Phelps, of the New Jersey State Normal School, Miss Lewis, principal of the primary department of the model school in that institution, went to Oswego to learn the new methods in order to introduce them into that school. Miss Jennie Stickney, a graduate of the Salem (Massachusetts) State Normal School, after completing the course at Oswego, was employed by the Boston board to organize a city training school on the plan of the Oswego school, and train their teachers in the new methods. She was for many years the principal of this school, until it grew into the present city normal school, with Dr. Larkin Dunton at its head. Miss Rebecca Jones, a lady of large experience, came from Worcester, Mass., to Oswego, and, immediately after graduation, was invited by the Worcester school board to organize a training school in that city on the Oswego plan, which has developed into the present State normal school of national reputation, with Mr. Russell as principal. Another graduate, Miss Pond, was invited to organize a city training school in Lewiston, Me. Miss Mary V. Lee, and Mrs. McGonnegal, two other graduates, were invited to organize a training school in Davenport, Iowa. In addition to these, Oswego graduates were invited to organize training schools in Cincinnati, Ohio, Indianapolis, Ind., Rochester, Syracuse, and Malone, N. Y., Dayton, Ohio, Detroit, Mich., Philadelphia, Pa., Washington, D. C., Reading, Pa., and many other smaller places in different parts of the country.

We have seen, already, that a number of the city training schools organized by Oswego graduates grow into normal schools. But this is a very small part of the influence upon normal schools exerted by the Oswego school. All the State normal schools in New York, excepting the one at Albany, have been organized on the Oswego plan.* Normal College in New York City was organized on the same plan, with Oswego graduates to do the work in methods and criticism. When the normal school at Winona, Minn., was organized, systematic work in methods and practice in teaching under criticism, under the influence of Oswego, was made a part of the regular work of the school, and Oswego graduates were employed as critic and method teachers. The three other normal schools which have since been organized in Minnesota have followed the same plan, and have employed Oswego graduates to do the professional work. The State normal school of *Indiana, at Terre Haute*, was organized on the same plan, with Oswego *graduates* as [illegible]. The normal school at Normal

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* [illegible] on the same plan.

Park has, for many years, employed Oswego graduates for method and other work. Besides these institutions, Oswego graduates have been called to do similar work in a number of the State normal schools of Pennsylvania, Connecticut, Rhode Island, Vermont, New Hampshire, Maine, Wisconsin, New Jersey, Nebraska, Missouri, Mississippi, California, Kansas, and Iowa.

This will give some idea of the direct influence exerted by Oswego, but in the nature of the case the indirect influence was even more powerful. As to the significance of this influence I will state my opinion in another chapter.

National Council of Education.

Committee on Rural Schools.

HENRY SABIN, Des Moines, Iowa, *Chairman*.
B. A. HINSDALE, Ann Arbor, Michigan.
D. L. KIEHLE, Minneapolis, Minnesota.
W. T. HARRIS, Washington, D. C.
A. B. POLAND, Trenton, New Jersey.
C. C. ROUNDS, Plymouth. New Hampshire.
J. H. PHILLIPS, Birmingham, Alabama.
S. T. BLACK, Sacramento, California.
W. S. SUTTON, Houston, Texas.
C. R. SKINNER, Albany, New York.
L. B. EVANS, Augusta, Georgia.
L. E. WOLFE. Kansas City, Missouri.

The committee to whom was assigned the work of outlining plans for the guidance of the Committee on Rural Schools submit the recommendations as printed in the accompanying circular. The division of topics was made after carefully reading the answers to the circular of inquiry sent to each member of the committee, and, as far as possible, in accordance with the general spirit which seemed to pervade these letters.

While the committee at Chicago endeavored to include as much as possible of the subject under consideration, it is very probable that other phases of the question may be suggested by different members of the general committee as desirable to be incorporated in the final report.

It is the present intention to call a meeting of the full committee at Jacksonville, during the meeting of the Department of Superintendence, in February, 1896. At that time we hope for a full and free discussion covering the entire field, as well as the special field assigned each committee.

For the Committee on Rural Schools,

HENRY SABIN,
Chairman.

DES MOINES, IOWA,
November 11, 1895.

Chicago, October 25-26, 1895.

Pursuant to the call of the chairman of the special committee on rural schools, appointed by the Council of Education at Denver, July 9, 1895, the subcommittee consisting of Henry Sabin, B. A. Hinsdale and D. L. Kiehle, met at the Palmer House at 10 A. M. The chairman, Superintendent Sabin, reported the result of communications with other members of the special committee on rural schools in reply to the circular sent out by himself. It was then moved and voted that the committee be divided into subcommittees, to each of which shall be assigned certain topics for investigation and report as shall be hereafter agreed upon.

The following subdivision of the general subject was adopted and assigned to special committees, the member first named to act as chairman :

1. SCHOOL MAINTENANCE. Committee—B. A. Hinsdale, W. S. Sutton, S. T. Black.
2. SUPERVISION. Committee—L. B. Evans, C. R. Skinner, Henry Sabin.
3. SUPPLY OF TEACHERS. Committee—C. C. Rounds, J. H. Phillips, D. L. Kiehle.
4. INSTRUCTION AND DISCIPLINE. Committee—W. T. Harris, A. B. Poland, L. E. Wolfe.

The following directory and explanatory rules and suggestions were adopted.

Adjourned.

D. L. KIEHLE,
Secretary.

The Work as Outlined for Each Committee.

I. SCHOOL MAINTENANCE.

This branch of the subject naturally divides itself into three subheads:

1. **Revenues.** Permanent school funds; taxation, general and local, embracing state, county, township, and district taxes; miscellaneous sources of school income, such as fines, licenses, gifts, etc.

2. **Expenditures.** Machinery and methods of distribution, general and local. The main points to be considered are the channels through which the funds reach the schools, and the rules and methods regulating their distribution and application.

3. **Organization of Business Administrative Machinery.** The county, district, and township unit systems; the consolidation of schools; the transportation of pupils; county, township, and district high schools; the relation of rural schools to city schools. Inquiry should be made into the main social, industrial, and economical factors that condition rural education; as density of population, wealth, means of communication, etc.

II. SUPERVISION.

1. The manner of electing the superintendent, state, county, district or township.

2. Minimum qualifications required of each, and term of office.

3. The relation of the superintendent, state, county, district or township, to the teachers and pupils as officer and adviser.

4. The relation of the superintendent, state, county, district or township, to school officers and their duties.

5. The relation of the state superintendent to the county and township superintendent.

6. The relation of the superintendent to the public at large as creating and shaping public opinion in rural districts.

7. The relation of the superintendent to school buildings, architecture, sanitation, and hygienic conditions.

III. SUPPLY OF TEACHERS.

1. An inquiry into the assistance rendered rural schools by the following facilities for preparation:

    (1.) Normal schools.
    (2.) Training schools in high schools and academies.
    (3.) Summer training schools.
    (4.) Institutes.

2. An inquiry into the means provided for the improvement of teachers already in the service.

    (1.) Teachers' meetings and associations.
    (2.) Reading circles.
    (3.) Libraries and current literature.

3. An inquiry into the manner of electing, employing and paying teachers.

    (1.) By what authority examined and certificated.
    (2.) By what authority employed.
    (3.) Terms of engagement, certificates, and wages paid.

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THE RURAL SCHOOL PROBLEM

A REPORT PRESENTED TO THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION,
AT DENVER, COLO., JULY 5, 1895, BY THE COMMITTEE ON STATE SCHOOL SYSTEMS

BY
HENRY SABIN

Extract from the Proceedings of the Committee, July 10, 1895.

Committee on Rural Schools met, pursuant to call of Henry Sabin, Chairman, at Brown Palace Hotel, Denver, Colorado, at 5:00 P. M., July 10, 1895. Present, Messrs. Sabin, Hinsdale, Kiehle, Sutton, Rounds and Wolfe. Absent, Messrs. Poland, Phillips, and Black.

On motion of Dr. Kiehle, L. E. Wolfe was elected secretary.

On motion of Dr. Hinsdale, committee was increased from nine to twelve, and the following added to the committee: Hon. Wm. T. Harris, Washington, D. C.; Supt. Lawton B. Evans, Augusta, Georgia; Hon. Charles R. Skinner, Albany, New York.

On motion of Mr. Sutton, Messrs. Sabin, Kiehle and Hinsdale were constituted a committee to formulate a plan of work and furnish members with copies of same; also, to divide the committee into sections and to assign work to each section. On motion, the commttee adjourned to meet at the call of its chairman.

* * *

This committee as subsequently enlarged to twelve, now consists of Henry Sabin, Iowa, chairman; B. A. Hinsdale, Michigan; D. L. Kiehle, Minnesota; W. T. Harris, Washington, D. C.; A. B. Poland, New Jersey; C. C. Rounds, New Hampshire; J. H. Phillips, Alabama; S. T. Black, California; W. S. Sutton, Texas; Chas. R. Skinner, New York; Lawton B. Evans, Georgia; L. E. Wolfe, Missouri.

The subcommittee will meet in Chicago the last of October, immediately after which the plans of work and investigation will be forwarded to the other members of the committee.

V

THE RURAL SCHOOL PROBLEM[1]

This report has reference only to questions which concern schools in the rural districts and the smaller villages, in which no attempt is made at grading the pupils. The aim has been to make it strictly a business paper, dealing with facts and with theories which are both practicable and of immediate importance. Early in the spring your committee sent to each State superintendent a circular asking for information concerning revenues, organization, and preparation of teachers for ungraded schools. The plan of supervision, attendance, and the course of study were included as incidental. Replies were received from twenty-five States, viz: Iowa, Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, New York, South Carolina, Florida, California, Nevada, Maine, Kentucky, Texas, Minnesota, Missouri, Michigan, Rhode Island, New Jersey, Nebraska, Mississippi, Delaware, Massachusetts, Montana, Pennsylvania, Virginia, and Wisconsin. In addition a large number of State reports have been consulted as furnishing desirable information. The information thus gained is embodied in the report in the following order of subjects: revenues and distribution of the same; organization of schools; supply of teachers.

REVENUES

The school funds are derived mainly from three sources, namely: permanent or invested funds, State tax, and local taxes imposed upon towns or districts by vote of the inhabitants. Local taxes are imposed in each of the forty-nine States and territories, including the District of Columbia; thirty-nine have what is termed a permanent school fund, the interest of which is distributed in support of the schools, but the principal to remain inviolate. Thirty-one supplement the proceeds of this fund by State tax. Ten have no permanent school fund; seven of these support their schools by State tax alone; and three by local tax.

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[1] A report presented to the National Council of Education at Denver, Colo., July 5, 1895, by the Committee on State School Systems.

In preference to any attempt at tabulation we have made extracts from answers received to the circular, and from State reports, as showing the trend of opinion in the different States. ,

It will be noticed that while the answers and suggestions differ in accordance with the civil organization of different States, there is substantial accord of sentiment in favor of a change in the method of taxation; and that school district taxation especially meets with little favor. These quotations could be largely increased, if necessary, but the length of this paper will not admit of it. They look to some way of obtaining a remedy for the gross inequality which exists not between the city and the country schools, but between the ungraded schools in different districts of the same township.

The quotations are as follows:

Kentucky—As revenue to pay teachers and superintendents, we would prefer county taxation after, and as supplemental to, State taxation.

Missouri—Revenues for the support of the ungraded schools are derived chiefly by a direct tax levied only by each district. I prefer a township tax.

Mississippi—I believe in a mixed revenue system; the State providing a certain proportion of the money necessary to maintain schools and distributing it to the county, township, or district, as the case may be, upon the basis of educable children. This is to be supplemented by a county tax distributed to the townships or districts, on the basis of educable children; the townships or districts being permitted to levy such additional tax as they may see fit.

Texas—The revenues for the support of the ungraded schools derived from local sources are very small. I should very much prefer a good, liberal, county school tax, to any other means of local support.

Florida—I would prefer a State levy, with county option to increase it.

Nevada—I prefer the county tax.

Maine—I prefer a tax raised upon the entire township.

Montana—Revenue is raised by county taxation. I prefer this method.

Pennsylvania—I incline to the opinion that a levy by the county would be more equable. Some townships in this State levy no tax. Others levy the maximum limit allowed by the law, namely, thirteen mills for building purposes, and thirteen mills for maintenance.

Indiana—We can make a levy anywhere from one to thirty-five cents on each one hundred dollars and may go as high as fifty cents on the polls. We like the township system in this State because it is so much cheaper.

Wisconsin—The revenues for the support of the ungraded schools are raised in part by the district, part by the county upon different townships, and in part by the State. It would seem more equable if raised by the township instead of the district.

South Dakota—Under our constitution we cannot have State uniformity of school taxation, but for school purposes we can provide for county tax levies that shall relieve the weak districts from the greater part of their burdens. This would be much better than our present method of taxation, under which the local school tax in some districts has been, at times, as high as twenty mills, while in other districts having equally good school privileges, the levy for the same years has been only five mills or less.

Massachusetts—The Massachusetts Teachers' Association resolved that, for the purpose of enabling the poorer towns of the commonwealth to have the continuous service of trained teachers, adequate assistance should be afforded by the State, and for this purpose an enlargement of the State school fund should be made. Our revenues are wholly from town and

State, principally from town tax. The low valuation of small towns makes it desirable to have a larger contribution from the State.

Minnesota—The taxation by districts is, in the highest degree, unequal, and exceedingly burdensome to the smaller and weaker ones. In some the tax is one mill on the dollar, while in others it reaches twenty-nine or thirty. The districts that really need the best schools have the poorest, the school year is the shortest, and the poverty-stricken inhabitants actually pay the highest tax.

Wisconsin Report, 1893–94—When taxation is made equal throughout the townships, the smaller districts will demand equal consideration with the larger ones in the selection of teachers and in the equipment of the schoolhouses.

Washington—In my judgment, if the policy is to be continued of allowing the county commissioners to levy the school tax, they should be compelled to levy such a tax as will produce a specified amount for each child of school age in the county, and that amount should be such as, with the State apportionment, would provide for each district an ample fund for a reasonable length of time during the year.

Vermont—If the town as a social unit provides the major part of the revenue for the public schools by an equal taxation, it should also disburse such revenue. It is a fallacy to think that equalization of taxes and the district system are compatible.

The spirit of our institutions is that of equality before the law. A system of schools which does not provide school facilities to all children within its limits is not an American system. To put this in different words: an American system of schools should seek so to equalize the burden of taxation that weak and impoverished districts, with a low valuation, should still be able to maintain a school equal in length of term, or in its equipment, to other schools of the same grade in that township or county.

Many excellent reasons can be advanced why the State should bear the entire burden of taxation necessary to the purpose of common-school education. These reasons are, however, more than counterbalanced by the objection that it would remove the schools too far from the people, and would diminish the interest which they ought to have in providing means necessary to the rightful instruction of their children. It is the policy of our government to impress upon the people the fact that they are the government, and that everything which tends to strength and permanence comes from their united and intelligent action. While we believe that it is right that the State should provide a generous amount, either by a tax of a certain number of mills on each dollar of valuation, or by a certain fixed sum in the aggregate, we also believe that local taxation is necessary to the healthful growth and prosperity of the schools. The question is, What should be the unit of taxation? Your committee are unanimous in the opinion that the system of district taxation, in use in many States, is both unjust and vicious. The argument is founded upon facts. Wherever there is a sparsely inhabited district, or one in which the valuation is low, the school interests suffer for want of sufficient support. Thus in one district the children must put up with a cheap, incompetent teacher, and with six months' school, while, across an imaginary line, children have the advantages of a good teacher, and of nine months' schooling. This is not in accordance with the spirit of free schools. It is true that the same discrepancies may exist to a diminished extent between different townships, and hence there has arisen the thought that the county is probably the best unit of taxation. This question must be settled very largely by the civil organization of the State, and by the character of its population. In the older States, where the population has some degree of permanency, and where the township organization has a clearly defined relation to the State, probably the township furnishes the best unit. On the other hand, in the newer States, sparsely populated, or in States in which the population is largely transitory, or engaged in occupations which do not encourage the owning of homes, the best unit is the county. If the point is raised that it is unjust thus to tax the wealthier portions of a county or township to support schools from which they can derive no benefit, the only answer is that we not only educate the child at the public expense for the child's sake, but also for the sake of the civilization in which he is to live. The State as a State has an immediate interest in the future of every child who is to become a citizen. We reach these conclusions, then: that the unit should be the county or the township, and that the law should be mandatory, compelling the levying of an amount as a minimum, which, added to the revenue derived from the State, would furnish reasonable school facilities to every child living upon that territory. This, however, should not prevent any community from imposing additional taxes upon themselves if facilities of a higher order are desired.

The ungraded schools need this protection. They are suffering from low wages, short terms, and incompetent teachers. The question of insufficient finances is at the foundation of the trouble. We have solved one equation of the problem when we have adopted the most equable and acceptable method of supplying funds.

DISTRIBUTION OF REVENUES

A question of equal importance presents itself in the methods of distributing revenues. In most of the States the distribution is based upon the number of children of school age in the township or district. This offers the temptation to swell the number included in the school census to its utmost limit in order to obtain a larger share of money from the State funds. The injustice of it is more clearly seen in the fact that the number of residents between certain ages furnishes no criterion of the actual school necessities of the district. It is as far out of the way as it would be to base the distribution of school funds upon the assessed valuation of the territory in question, or upon the number of people of all ages.

These two points are to be kept in view. The funds must be distributed so as to equalize, as far as possible, school privileges and at the same time stimulate the community to take advantage of the opportunities thus afforded their children. A few extracts from letters and reports will illustrate the methods in use at present, and also show the trend of educational opinion.

Illinois—The State apportions the amount derived from the State school fund to the common schools, on the basis of the number of persons under twenty-one years of age residing in the counties, as shown by the national census.

New Jersey—Our ungraded schools derive most of their entire revenue from this State in the following manner: two hundred dollars per each teacher employed, and the balance per capita according to school census.

Pennsylvania—The revenues for the support of the ungraded schools in Pennsylvania are distributed on the basis of the number of taxables at the triennial assessment.

Florida—The one-mill tax is apportioned among the counties on the basis of the average attendance upon school.

Mississippi.—The money is distributed to the counties and separate school districts on the basis of educable children in each.

Nebraska—The interest of the permanent State endowment is apportioned to the school population.

Rhode Island—The State money for schools is divided in all the cities and towns upon two different plans. Each town gets one hundred dollars for each school up to fifteen in number, and after that, all that is left is divided in proportion to the number of children of school age.

Minnesota—The current school fund is apportioned to the districts in proportion to the number of pupils who have attended school at least forty days in the year.

Virginia—State school money is apportioned on the basis of the school population.

Ohio—The auditor of the State shall apportion the State common-school fund to the several counties of the State semi-annually, upon the basis of enumeration of youth therein. But the law in another section provides that so much of the contingent fund as may be set apart by a township for the continuance of schools after the State funds are exhausted, shall be so apportioned by the board that the schools in all the subdistricts of the township shall be continued the same length of time each year.

Iowa Report—The suggestion made by my predecessor that the apportionment of money at present derived from the interest of the permanent school fund and other sources, should be based upon the average daily attendance for the preceding year, as reported by the county superintendent to the superintendent of public instruction, carries with it much force. It seems the only just and equitable way, when we consider that the money would thus reach those schools in which there is the most work to be done on account of the large number of pupils. In fact, such an enactment would doubtless increase the attendance and act as a very efficient auxiliary to a compulsory law.

Washington Report—The manner of apportioning the common-school fund among the various districts is a matter that has often been the subject of interesting discussions, and, while the method at present in vogue seems not to have been very seriously criticised since its adoption, there are grave doubts as to its efficacy in accomplishing the best results possible with the fund at our disposal.

South Dakota—The apportionments of State and county general school fund should be based on the total attendance as shown by the annual reports of district clerks and not on the total number of persons of school age. When the amount of each quarterly apportionment is made dependent upon the school attendance, there can be no doubt that more pupils will be enrolled in our schools than there have been heretofore, and that their attendance at school will become more regular. Such an amendment would probably increase the per cent. of attendance much more rapidly than our compulsory attendance law has yet done.

New Jersey Report, 1893—A fair distribution of State school moneys would require that a part, if not all, should be apportioned on the basis of the number of pupils actually enrolled or taught in the schools, and not, as now, wholly on the basis of the number of children of school age, whether enrolled and taught or otherwise.

It is plainly the consensus of opinion that the prevailing system of distributing school funds, *pro rata*, upon the school population as a basis, is detrimental to the interests of the rural schools. The result of this plan of distribution has been to give an undue advantage to the schools in the strong districts, and to leave those in thinly settled and impoverished districts helpless and unprovided for. Several States have already sought a remedy. If it is right to tax all for the benefit of all, then it is just so to distribute the funds thus raised as to accrue to the advantage of the entire community.

The most feasible methods of distribution cannot be discussed without reference to the next topic in this report, that of organization. We, however, cannot fail to reach the conclusion that justice to the rural schools demands that some method be devised, which will insure a reasonable support to the weakest school, and at the same time act as a stimulant in obtaining the highest possible per cent. of attendance.

ORGANIZATION

The limits of this report will only allow us to say that, with but very few exceptions, the judgment of State superintendents, as gathered from their replies to the circular sent to them, and from various State reports, is strongly in favor of the township as the unit of organization.

A few extracts from these papers must suffice. However, the old maxim applies: "From one learn all."

Missouri—I prefer the township system because it operates on a larger scale, and is likely to give expression to the sentiment of better men.

New Jersey—Hence it is that the system [district] introduced many years ago, whereby townships were divided into school districts to fit the then prevailing conditions, is to-day antiquated, inefficient, and expensive.

Michigan—We prefer the township system because it would lead to a uniformity of text-books, taxation, length of school year, for all of the children of the township, and equal facilities so far as teachers and apparatus are concerned.

Wisconsin Report, 1894—In my judgment the substitution of the township for the district as the unit of the system would result in the increased efficiency of the common schools.

Mississippi—I believe the township system is the true philosophical system for public-school organization, although we cannot reach it, owing to uneven distribution of population.

Texas—I prefer the township system, with the county system as a close second choice. The district is too small to permit the organization of schools of different grades. The county is larger than necessary. The township is free from both objections.

Pennsylvania—We prefer the township organization to district and county organization.

Indiana—We tried the district system several years ago, and should consider it taking a long step backward to drop the township and take up the district system again.

Vermont—It is doubtful if any law [township system] enacted in the State of Vermont, received under such antagonistic and discouraging circumstances, ever won more or stancher supporters than our present law during the short time it has been in operation.

Ohio—To anyone who will take the trouble to give this subject careful study, the conclusion will be evident that the township is unquestionably the correct educational unit.

Iowa—The only feasible remedy for these evils is to return as soon as possible to the provision of the organic law of 1858, making each civil township a district for school purposes.

New Hampshire—The most far-reaching change made in the last ten years has been the substitution of the town system for the effete and impotent system of district schools. The district school had lost much of its usefulness, and was, in many towns, no longer susceptible of improvement. Under the town system it is regaining its power, and a better educated class of children is growing up in the rural sections of the State.

Rhode Island—As fast as our towns have abolished the district by their own vote, they at once begin to consider the matter of a high school. So long as the districts exist we shall not have high schools, but if we can get rid of the districts we shall ultimately be able to provide high-school facilities for the greater part, if not for all, of the children of the State.

The principal arguments in favor of making the civil township the unit may be stated briefly as follows :

1. Effectiveness and economy of administration. The number of school officials would be greatly reduced, and hence there would be less liability to loss of funds through incompetency or dishonesty. In Iowa 27,000 school officers are serving as members of school boards. The secretaries and treasurers receive $135,000, annually, as compensation for their services. In Minnesota the township system would reduce the number of school officers from 18,000 to 3000. In Wisconsin, it is estimated that the sum of $190,000 is wasted annually upon unnecessary schools. Under the district system, there is a great waste of supplies in one school, and a want of the same in another; buildings are allowed to become dilapidated for want of attention; several school officials are paid, when one officer would suffice. In these respects the township system would effect a saving of thousands of dollars annually. It is simply applying business principles to the business affairs of the schools.

2. Effectiveness and simplicity of organization. The township board of education, a certain proportion going out of office every year, should be armed with the same powers and exercise the same duties as the board of education in the city or in the independent district. They should appoint teachers,

locate buildings, select text-books, determine courses of study, designate what schools pupils may attend, consolidate schools when their numbers are reduced to a certain extent, and in fact transact any business which may lawfully come before them.

Subdistrict lines would disappear and a most fruitful cause of trouble cease at once. In unity there is strength. To place all the schools of a township under the control of one governing board would tend to equalize length of terms, strengthen the teacher's position, and lift the schools to a higher place in the estimation of the public.

3. The township system affords the only means through which we may hope to reach township high schools and township supervision. We believe these two points are essential in any system looking to the improvement of the ungraded schools. The township high school has become a necessity, if we are to lift the rural school out of the rut into which it has fallen. To promote the highest efficiency of such a school, it must be in complete and perfect harmony with the schools of the township. This cannot be the case unless they are all under the control of one board, and supported from the same general funds. The establishment of these high schools would furnish a needed incitement to the pupils in the lower grades in the country, and would stimulate them to remain longer in school that they might graduate at the end of the course. It would dissipate the aimlessness of study and instruction so prevalent in the country schools of to-day. The answer to the question, is it possible to arrange the course so as to lead up to the establishment of the township high school, is invariably in the affirmative. Township supervision is a natural result of the township system. It has already become an established feature of the Massachusetts system. It is rapidly gaining ground in Ohio under the Workman law. It is the objective point at which the board of education is aiming in New Jersey, and other States are developing the idea of either township or of some other form of close supervision in connection with the ungraded schools.

The establishment of the township high school would tend to strengthen the county superintendency. These schools would afford better facilities for the academic instruction of teachers. They could be utilized as centers of normal instruction. The township superintendent would naturally become the ally of the county superintendent in conducting educational meetings, in grading the schools, and in fostering a healthy public opinion in favor of good schools, competent teachers, and liberal salaries.

4. The adoption of the township system equalizes the burdens of taxation, and renders it possible to distribute State school funds in inverse ratio with the wealth of the towns. If the towns of the State have a valuation upon a common basis, then it is just that, to a certain extent, those lowest in the scale should receive the greatest aid from State funds, in order that every community may be sure of good schools. This is the Massachusetts plan. In some States, notably in Massachusetts, New Jersey, and Rhode Island, a fixed sum is set aside for every school before any general distribution is made. The method of determining the exact amount thus placed to the credit of each school may be different in different States, but we believe the underlying principle to be correct, that public policy demands that the strong shall help bear the burdens of the weak. The remainder of State or county funds should be distributed to each township in a ratio based upon the actual attendance of pupils as shown by the record of the preceding year, with a possible discrimination in favor of those towns most willing to impose school taxes upon themselves.

There is not time to discuss other points. Under the Workman law in Ohio, many of the benefits of the township system may be obtained without abolishing subdistrict lines. Under the Boxwell law in the same State, the tuition of graduates from ungraded schools may be paid by the township board in the high school of any neighboring city or village of the county. Such a provision in the law is practically introducing the county high school, and in many States would be a most desirable feature. In Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and other States, township boards are authorized to pay out of public funds for the transportation of pupils to such schools as it seems best for them to attend. Thus they are enabled in small towns to bring all the children to a central school, or to unite two or more small schools, lessening the expense, and at the same time improving the educational advantages of the township. These points with many others are all germane to our general subject, but there is not time to discuss them in this connection. It must suffice to say that we can reach no other conclusion than this: The substitution of the township for the district, as the unit of organization, is absolutely essential to the highest good of the ungraded schools.

SUPPLY OF TEACHERS

The great question of the supply of competent teachers for the ungraded schools remains to be discussed. Of every 100 pupils enrolled in the public schools, Texas reports that 80 are in the ungraded schools; Indiana, 65; Illinois, 42; New Jersey, 25; Minnesota, 40; Ohio, 50; Wisconsin, 58; Florida, 90; Massachusetts reports only 10; California reports no ungraded schools, but 40 per cent. of the pupils are in schools of one or two rooms. These figures at best are only approximate, but they are enough to show the magnitude of the question under discussion. Undoubtedly the number of pupils enrolled in ungraded schools will reach nearly, if not quite, 50 per cent. of the entire enrollment. If we include schools of two or three rooms having practically no supervision, and which are but partially graded, the per cent. would be much higher. It is very difficult to gather statistics which show the number of teachers in the ungraded schools, having anything like an adequate preparation for their work. When we take into consideration the fact that the very large percentage of graduates of our normal schools is absorbed by the schools in the cities and larger villages, and that usually the bright teachers, who have had the benefit of a partial course in the normal school, work their way into graded schools as fast as possible, it is evident that the schools in the country are mainly left to the care of novices without any special training.

The school age, the manner of gathering statistics, the numbers of months in the school year, vary so much in the different States that it is impossible to arrive at anything but general conclusions. In the number of trained teachers employed in the different States there is a wide margin. Virginia and Kentucky report only 10 of every 100 teachers as having anything like an adequate preparation for their work. Texas and Nebraska report only a very few. In some parts of California 70 per cent. have professional training, in others as low as 10 per cent.

Rhode Island—About 10 per cent. with only a common-school education, 40 per cent. normal trained teachers, and the remainder having either a high-school or an academic training.

Missouri—About 25 per cent. of the teachers in ungraded schools are really prepared to teach.

Minnesota—About 19 per cent. of the teachers in our common-school districts have attended normal school.

Michigan—About 20 or 25 per cent. of the teachers of the schools have had some normal training.

Wisconsin—About 50 per cent. of the teachers are really prepared for their work; 2644 of them claim no higher preparation than that obtained in the common schools.

Indiana—About 15 to 25 per cent. of our teachers in the ungraded schools have had an adequate preparation for their work.

It is not necessary to follow these statistics. They are taken from different sections of the country, and are sufficient to indicate conditions in the rural schools. What is a fairly adequate preparation for the work in these schools? When we consider the low salaries paid, the short term of continuance in the work, not much if any over three years, it is evident that we cannot require a high standard of scholarship, nor four years' attendance at a preparatory school. A reasonable preparation ought to embrace these three particulars:

1. A thorough acquaintance with the elementary branches. This would include a discussion of the educational values of these branches both as sources of knowledge and of discipline; what studies should be introduced as best calculated to benefit the children in the mining districts, in the farming districts; and other questions as incidental to the formation of courses of study, which should be sufficiently elastic to suit conditions in different sections of the same State. But these all yield preference to the thought that whatever the teacher attempts to teach, that she herself must know.

2. A practical knowledge of the best methods of teaching, of school management, and an elementary knowledge of the principles of education.

3. More or less practice in actual school work under a skilled trainer. This preparation would touch the three points in which the country school teacher is weakest.

These are the minimum of requirements and can possibly be compassed in a two years' course, provided the entrance examination is rigid in the fundamental branches. Here we are confronted with the fact that no State provides means sufficient to give to the teachers advantages for obtaining this special preparation. Massachusetts, with 6 normal schools, and with 4 additional schools in course of erection, comes the nearest to it. Pennsylvania has 13 normal schools, each well equipped, but she has an army of 26,000 teachers. New York, with 11 normal schools, and a large number of training classes, is yet very far from being able to place a trained teacher in every schoolroom in the State. To put Iowa on an equal footing with Massachusetts would require the establishment of 25 normals. While the erection in any State of high-grade normal schools, as centers of influence and enlightenment, with courses of instruction covering three or four years, is exceedingly desirable, it is evident that the solution of the problem does not lie in that direction.

There are four courses open to us:

1. The improvement of the county institute. This is not

the place to discuss the institute system except as regards a few particulars in which it touches closely the preparation of teachers for rural schools.

It will not do to turn the institute into a school for academic work, the aim being to enable the teachers to pass the examination. The tendency in this direction is altogether bad. The spirit in which the institute was founded, calculated to create and foster a professional enthusiasm among teachers, and an educational enthusiasm in the entire community, should not be overlooked. It is a very essential feature in the system. In the Western and Southern States, where for a time we must depend upon the institute to aid us in preparing country teachers for their work, there is one point which must be insisted upon. The instructors must be persons who know what good teaching is. They must be men and women who have had a professional training, and who have made a study of the conditions and wants of the schools in which the teachers in the institute are to instruct. Every exercise should be full of professional spirit, and every recitation should be a model recitation. It happens many times that the institute is the only opportunity given the teachers to learn, by actual experience, in what a good school consists. This one point being carefully guarded, the institute may be left to take such form and shape as the conditions of the community may determine. A dead uniformity in institute work, even in the same State, is to be dreaded.

2. A system of summer or training schools, under the care and direction of State authority. Minnesota is making this experiment with assured success. A school of six weeks' duration, if rightly conducted, gives the teacher an opportunity to review under a competent instructor branches in which she is deficient. It is a new era in the life of many country teachers to come under the influence of a scholarly and cultured person, if only for a few weeks. Even this minimum of training thus secured cannot but be productive of good to the schools.

3. The State should avail itself of existing educational insti-

tutions. It is a fact which everyone acquainted with educational progress in the Western States must have observed, that those colleges in which sound scholarship is the basis of work have produced a marked effect upon the schools in the surrounding region. We ought to make use of the preparatory departments of these colleges in fitting teachers. There are in Iowa several private normals which carry a two years' course only, and which, by arrangements with school officials, control the work in the public schools so as to afford the necessary practice in school work. Why should not the State give them material encouragement, if they conform their course of study to the requirements of the State department of instruction and open their work to State inspection? New York, with her system of training schools, claims to be making progress in the direction of preparing teachers for the ungraded schools. These classes are supported by the State, but the amount received depends upon the character of the work done as tested by the final examination. Although New York has exceptional facilities for this work in a large number of old and well-established academies, there are some features of the plan which are worth consideration in other States.

4. The establishment of small normal schools at moderate expense, as fast as possible, in different places in the State. Care must be taken that such schools do not take on the name of college or ape the airs of the university, and that the course of study does not become top-heavy. They must be kept down to the specific work of fitting the country teacher for her work in the country school.

The objective point to be aimed at in each of these plans is to bring at least a modicum of professional training to the doors of the teachers in the ungraded schools. When this is done we can shut the schoolroom door in the face of the untrained teacher.

The committee reach these conclusions:

1. The proper unit of taxation is in no case the district. It should be either the township or the county, as the civil organization of the State may determine.

2. Every community should be required to raise a certain sum for the support of their schools as prerequisite for receiving their share of public money. A certain definite sum should be appropriated to each school out of the State funds, and the remainder should be divided *pro rata*, in accordance with the actual attendance as shown by the certified records of the preceding year, with a discrimination in favor of townships most willing to tax themselves for school purposes.

3. The unit of organization should be the township, unless, as in some of the newer States, the civil unit may render the county preferable. In no case should it be the district.

4. The weakness of the rural schools is in the want of skilled teaching, therefore it is the duty, as it is for the interest, of the State to foster and encourage all available means of bringing normal instruction to the doors of the teachers, with a view of rendering it feasible to require some degree of special preparation for the work from every candidate who aspires to the position of teacher in the ungraded schools.

Committee on State School Systems

HENRY SABIN, Des Moines, Ia., *Chairman.*
JAMES H. CANFIELD, Lincoln, Neb.
JOHN W. DICKINSON, Newtonville, Mass.
J. R. PRESTON, Jackson, Miss.
N. C. SCHAEFFER, Harrisburg, Pa.

SOME SOCIOLOGICAL FACTORS IN RURAL EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES.*

EDUCATION is one of the most important social functions. It is society that, employing its various agents, uses the accumulated knowledge and thought in its possession to form the character and direct the lives of the new members that are constantly being admitted to its ranks. In this way education acts strongly on the other social functions; so strongly indeed on some of them that it may be said to determine their character. This is not all. It is equally true that the other social functions act strongly on this one, serving to determine both the quantity and quality of the education that society furnishes its members. It is to the discussion of this second proposition, limited as it is in the heading, that this paper will be devoted. First, however, it will be well to give an illustration of the subject in its broader relations.

In the month of August, 1891, the Swiss celebrated two notable anniversaries. On the first day of the month, the Confederacy celebrated the sixth centennial, and on the 15th, the City of Bern the seventh centennial, of their respective foundations. Every man who gave any real thought to these anniversaries, must have remarked that the place of Switzerland in the history of the world, and in the present life of the world, is quite incommensurate with her territory, population, and natural resources, and must have reflected upon the causes that have made it so. The Swiss area falls a little below 16,000 square miles, and the Swiss population a little below 3,000,000 souls. Together, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island are somewhat less in size, and somewhat more in population. Among the causes of the disparity to which attention has been directed, high place must be accorded to

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Earl Barnes

education. The Federal Constitution of Switzerland contains these provisions: "The Cantons provide for primary instruction, which shall be sufficient, and then be placed exclusively under the direction of the secular authorities. It is compulsory, and, in the public schools, free. The public schools shall be such that they may be frequented by the adherents of all religious sects without any offense to their freedom of conscience or of belief." Switzerland ranks among the foremost countries in the world in respect to public education. The amount of money expended on schools of various kinds is proportionately high, while illiteracy in large parts of the country has been practically annihilated. In the year of the two centennials referred to, primary education cost on an average 40 francs, and secondary education 151 francs to the pupil. The average expenditure for primary schools was 10 francs for each inhabitant. There are, however, marked differences in different parts of the Republic. The best Cantons compare favorably with the best states of North Germany; while the German and the French Cantons, other things being equal, are on the same footing, the Italian Cantons fall far into the rear. The contrast between the Protestant and the Catholic Cantons is marked. Not only do the Protestant Cantons surpass the others as a rule, but the Catholic Cantons rise higher in the scale the more they have been touched by modern progressive influences. In the full Protestant Cantons the school attendance is one to 5 of the whole population; in the half-and-half Cantons, one to 7, while in the Catholic Cantons it is one to 9. Zürich makes an excellent showing, but Zürich has an educational history running back for centuries. It contains the largest of the Swiss cities: next to Geneva it has the densest population and is also very wealthy. Protestant controversialists have been prompt to ascribe the superiority of the Protestant Cantons in general solely to religion, but it is only fair to observe that, as a class, the Catholic Cantons are the more mountainous, the more thinly populated, the poorer, and the more backward. Such Cantons as Uri, Schwyz, and Unter-Walden-Nied expended 3 francs for each inhabitant on education, while Zürich, Schaffhausen and Basel expended 15, 16 and 24 francs respectively. Uri, Schwyz, and Unter-Walden-Nied, which formed the original Confederacy in 1891, all abut upon the great central lake; they are all small; they are all infertile, thinly populated, containing no considerable towns, and are largely devoted to grazing and pasturage. Uri has the sparsest population of all the Cantons, save alone the Grisons, which lies on the Italian side of the country. Now, in studying Swiss civilization these facts cannot be separated; they hold together; they give an excellent example of the interaction of social forces, or of the mutuality of cause and effect; change any one of the factors, and you change more or less the whole circle to which it belongs. So much will suffice to illustrate what is meant by sociological factors in popular education.

The subject as defined offers to our minds many extremely interesting phases. It will be best, however, to confine our attention to such phases as have also practical importance, holding out some promise of reform or progress.

First, we will give our attention to density of population. The importance of this element in the rural school problem becomes obvious at a glance. In populous districts fewer schools and districts relatively are called for, while, at the same time, owing to the larger numbers and the more varied attainments of the pupils, the system can be more fully developed. The school and the home, under the present system, cannot be far apart; otherwise children will attend the school with difficulty, or not at all. Once more, the interest and enthusiasm of pupils and teachers depend directly upon the number and the ability of the pupils present. For the majority of children, individual instruction, or anything closely approaching it, is not to be commended. Aristotle condemned such instruction on political grounds. It may also be condemned on pedagogical grounds. Children need the inspiration of numbers. Besides, numbers contain ethical value. As a rule, you can no more make a good school out of a half dozen pupils than you can make a powerful galvanic battery with one or two pairs of plates. Then, again, the question of cost is directly involved. Where pupils are scattered and the schools are small, education is necessarily very expensive, provided it is at the same time good. Generally, however, it is bad.

To illustrate: Some twenty years ago, I investigated one of the old townships in Northern Ohio with respect to its school condition, and with these results: Schools, 7 in number; youth of school age enumerated, 191; pupils enrolled in schools, 103; average daily attendance, 71; average size of schools, 10 pupils; largest enumeration in any district, 85, smallest, 12; largest enrollment, 37, smallest, 3; largest daily attendance, 25, smallest, 3; largest cost per pupil in any district, $42.60, smallest, $18.56. The average cost per pupil the same year in the State was $13.36. Argument is not needed to show that this was an inefficient and wasteful township system of education. How much better it would have been if the seven schools could have been consolidated, thus putting all the pupils under two or three teachers. I remember a school in Ohio, within sight of my own home, that was kept in session a whole summer with but two pupils in attendance, and those two were all there were in the district. My father, who was a man of close observation, was in the habit of remarking in my boyhood, that a farm of 1,000 acres situated all in one school district would, as a rule, spoil the school, by reducing the number of children, and I have often seen confirmation of his statement.

The Census Office at Washington considers those parts of the country that have a population of less than two to the square mile unsettled. These parts amount to a little more than one-third of the whole, not including Alaska. Once more, in constructing its tables and maps to show density of population, the Census Office excludes the cities, or those centres of population containing 8,000 persons or more. In 1890, the second of the two rules excluded 443 centres of population, containing an aggregate of 18,835,670 inhabitants, or 29.12 per cent of the whol

The whole country, less the parts excluded by the first rule, the Census Office has divided with reference to certain ***maxima*** and *minima* of population as follows:

2 to 6	to a square mile	592,037	square miles.
6 to 18	" "	394,943	"
18 to 45	" "	701,847	"
45 to 90	" "	235,148	"
90 and above	"	24,312	"
	Total,	1, 947,287	"

The Superintendent of the Census makes some interesting remarks upon the economical significations of these statistics, as follows:

"These limits define in a general way the extent and prevalence of various classes of industries. The first group, 2 to 6 to a square mile, indicates a population mainly occupied with the grazing industry, or a widely scattered farming population. The second group, 6 to 18, indicates a farming population with systematic cultivation of the soil, but this either in an early stage of settlement or upon more or less rugged soil. The third group, 18 to 45, to a square mile, almost invariably indicates a highly successful agriculture, while in some localities the beginnings of manufactures have raised into this group a difficult farming region. Speaking generally, agriculture in this country is not carried on with such care and refinement as yet to afford employment and support to a population in excess of 45 to a square mile. Consequently the last two groups, 45 to 90 and 90 and above to a square mile, appear only as commerce and manufactures arise and personal and professional services are in demand."

He might have introduced education with equal propriety. The statistics given throw a direct light upon school material, and an indirect one upon school resources. Much the same may be said of churches and the intellectual and moral instruments of society generally. There is, therefore, cause for deep regret that such large areas of country are falling off in population. From 1880 to 1890 more than 400 countries, or about five times as many as there are in the State of Ohio, suffered in this way.

But, secondly, the character of the population must be considered as well as its number. It is evident that a certain homogeneity is very conducive to public education. The children of such a community can be educated together, and hence more cheaply and more effectively. One system of schools suffices for all classes. But if the children must be segregated in different schools according to non-educational tests, one of two things will certainly happen: either public education will become expensive, or it will become inferior in quality. Looking at the subject from this point of view merely, it is unfortunate that in large portions of the United States popular education should be embarrassed by the race question. In 1890, the per cents of white and colored population, respectively, were distributed in the five great divisions that the Census Office recognizes in the following manner:

North Atlantic States . .	98.4	1.6
South " " . .	63.2	36.8
North Central States . .	98	2
South " " . .	68.3	31.7
Western States	94.8	5.2

If per cents for the States severally were given, the contrasts would be still more striking. The per cent. of colored people in New Hampshire, for example, was 18, while in South Carolina it was 59.87. Now there is little probability that the educational value of such statistics as these will be exaggerated. The presence of a large colored population in any State or other community tends to affect popular education unfavorably in three ways: to increase its cost, to make its quality inferior, and to lower both the intellectual and moral level of society and its money-earning capacity.

In one respect the rural parts of the country are better off, upon the whole, than the cities. Religious differences do not disturb popular education to the same extent. Relatively, parochial schools are much fewer in number.

In the third place, the wealth of society is a very important factor in education, and particularly in rural education. Naturally, the per capita wealth of the several divisions of the country varies greatly. In 1890 these were the averages:

North Atlantic States	$1,132	per capita.
South Atlantic States	519	"
North Central States	1,129	"
South Central States	583	"
Western States	2,250	"

In the North Atlantic States the maximum was in Rhode Island, $1,459 per capita; the minimum in Maine, $740. In the South Atlantic States the maximum was in Maryland (excluding the Federal District), $1,043 per capita; the minimum in South Carolina, $348.

Now it is perfectly well understood that a good modern system of state education can be supported only at great public cost. Still more, the cost is all the time increasing. Our total expenditures for this purpose the last twenty years have been mounting upward by leaps and bounds. At present the money expended by the States together is $175,000,000 annually, which is more than twice the cost of supporting the National Government before the civil war. Education has come to be a great item in the budget of every highly civilized country in the world.

Fourthly, the character of the population in respect to its money-earning power must be taken into the account. The size of the average family and the relative number of taxpayers, or the adult males, and their productiveness as economical agents, all become educational factors of much importance. If families are large, the number of children to be schooled is proportionally great; which, under some conditions, would add to the efficiency of the schools, and under other conditions would increase their cost. Then the larger the relative number of adult males and the greater their producing power, the higher their intelligence and educational needs, and the greater their ability to provide the sinews for educational warfare. We need not enter into the correlation of the size of the family and its material condition. It still remains true, however, as in the time of Solomon, that the destruction of the poor is their poverty. In respect to educational possibilities there is the greatest difference between a community having a high ratio of adult male population of large wealth-producing power and a comunity having a small ratio of such population with small wealth-producing power. The country taken together in 1890–91 showed surprising variations in this respect. There were 91.4 taxpayers for each 100 children 6 to 18 years of age; but in different sections the ratio varied from 65.9 to 100 in the South Central States to 156.7 to 100 in the Western States. In South Carolina there were but 55 adult males to earn the money with which to school 100 children, 32 of whom were colored men. Comparing the taxpayer factor with the per capita tax for education, some very striking results are obtained. Dr. Harris has shown* that in Montana a contribution of $5.85 per taxpayer furnished in 1890–91 $16.02 for each child of school age, while in Texas a contribution of $6.55 per taxpayer produced a result of only $4.48 for each child. Mississippi, after raising per taxpayer about half what Nevada raised, had only about one-eighth as much as the latter State for each child of school age. The causes that effect the ratio of school children to the adult population are beside the present inquiry. But it is perfectly obvious that this is an educational factor of much value.

Little logical acumen is required to see either the educational value or the social congruence of such factors as the wealth per capita of the country or of any State in it, the expenditure per capita for public education, the expenditure for the same purpose per pupil in the schools, and the per cent. of illiteracy taking the population 10 years old and more into the account. These items are shown in the following table:

North Atlantic States . . .	$1,132	$2.06	$23.65	6.2
South Atlantic States	579	.96	8.25	40.03
North Central States	1,29	2.81	19.96	6.7
South Central States	583	.98	7.59	39.5
Western States	2,250	3.55	34.03	11.6

It must be remembered, however, that these statistics are, in part, now several years old.

Perhaps I should observe that statistics may be taken too seriously. We need not now examine the arguments by which Mr. Buckle and others like him have sought to show that man has no free agency, but that society is governed in all its movements by laws as fixed as those of material nature. It answers the present purpose to say, that the highest state of education is not always found in the most populous, the richest, or the most homogeneous states. France is much richer than Germany, but she is inferior in education. England is far richer than Scotland, and has been behind her in schools of popular education since the time of John Knox. Relatively, Rhode Island is the richest and most populous of the American States, but she has never led the American common-school column. There are other factors than those that are distinctly social which enter into the problem. Educational traditions and ideas, public spirit, and force of character all tell. At the same time, it would be the sheerest folly to exclude or belittle the material factors that enter into public education and all similar social interests.

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*Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1890-91, p. 24.

The line of argument followed in this paper is sustained by the Michigan statistics of illiteracy collected by the State Census Office in 1894. Three groups of statistics drawn from the published bulletin will be given.

I. Ratio of the total population of the State 10 years of age and more unable to read and write, 30 in 1,000.

Ratio of the native-born population in the State 10 years of age and more unable to read and write, 21 in 1,000.

Ratio of the foreign-born population in the State 10 years of age and more unable to read and write, 84 in 1,000.

These ratios cause no surprise and call for no particular comment.

II. The ratio of foreign-born persons 10 years of age and more in the State who are unable to read or write and the number of such persons in the cities of the State were practically the same, viz: 84 in 1,000. Nor does this result create surprise.

III. Ratio of native-born population in the State 10 years of age or more unable to read or write, 21 in 1,000.

Ratio of the native-born population of the cities of the State 10 years old or more unable to read or write, 14 in 1,000.

On this basis the showing against the State as a whole compared with the cities taken together is 50 per cent., but if we set the cities against the remainder of the State, or the rural districts, the showing is much more favorable for the one and much more unfavorable for the other.

Ratio of the native-born population of the country districts 10 years old or more unable to read or write, 24 in 1,000.

Ratio of the native-born population of the cities 10 years of age or more unable to read or write, 14 in 1,000.

The ratio in the country districts is 70 per cent. greater than in the cities. If the country rate of illiteracy could be reduced to the city rate, or, what is the same thing, if the country level of intelligence as measured by this test could be brought up to the city level, the number of native-born illiterates of the given age would be reduced about 8,000.

These last ratios are certainly not in accordance with prevailing opinion. How far they are supported by the statistics of other States, I am unable to say; but there can be no doubt that, as measured by the reading-and-writing test, the rural districts of Michigan are quite behind the cities. It may, perhaps, be said that Michigan is comparatively a new State, that much of it is thinly settled, that it contains large lumbering and mining districts, and that these facts explain the greater illiteracy of the country districts. Fortunately, we are able to follow the inquiry into the counties and ascertain the exact situation. The fact is that in the oldest and wealthiest parts of Michigan the cities, as a rule, surpass the counties as wholes in respect to popular intelligence. The city of Detroit ranks distinctly higher than Wayne County in which it is situated, and the same may be said of the cities of Grand Rapids and Ann Arbor, as compared with Kent and Washtenaw Counties.

No doubt several facts enter into the explanation of this state of things, but the most important of them is the inferiority of the country schools.

My attention was first called to the subject of rural schools and rural education about twenty-five years ago. A series of charts showing the more important educational statistics of Ohio, prepared by Dr. T. C. Mendenhall, was exhibited at Philadelphia in 1876. I was particularly impressed by the chart showing the size of the schools in different parts of the State. Then in the Western Reserve, where the social conditions affecting schools began to change as early as 1850, I had right around me one of the most impressive of object lessons. I publicly urged the consolidation of schools as a means necessary to meet the new conditions. I shall venture to quote a few sentences from an address that was delivered and published in the year 1878.

"Centralization is the only remedy for this state of things. There must be fewer school officers, fewer schools, fewer teachers, and more pupils in the school. You cannot have a fire without fuel or a school without scholars. The Western Reserve Yankee is very conservative. Having always had a school house on the corner of his own farm or of his neighbor's, he cannot reconcile himself to the idea of sending his children three or four miles away. But in many places it must come to that in time; in such towns (as those mentioned) the children will be taught in consolidated schools, or not at all. People will not long be so absurd as to keep up a district school for three scholars. When they make up their minds to the inevitable, which is in this case also the desirable, they will find that the necessary steps are both few and short. It will be found both cheaper and better to carry the children to the distant school than to go on in the old way."

I now hear with no little satisfaction that the Western Reserve is beginning to move in this direction. The necessary legislation has been procured in several cases, and the schools of several towns have been more or less consolidated. Old buildings are abandoned if necessary and new ones built. The schools and teachers are much reduced in numbers and greatly improved in quality. A competent correspondent on the ground writes me as follows: "We carry the children to and from the school when necessary in closed hacks hired at public expense. We get the inspiration that comes from large numbers; we can classify according to advancement of the pupils; we are able to have a much better grade of teachers without any increase of taxes; we secure a more uniform attendance, and the children are never tardy; the instruction is at once better and cheaper." He adds that some people are opposed to the movement (people who are always opposed to new methods to meet changed conditions), but the opinion is spreading that the country district school does not measure up to the educational demands of the time

This is progress. There is little more reason in having eight or ten district schools in a sparsely populated Ohio or Michigan township than there is in having an equal number of churches belonging to any one of the leading religious denominations.

B. A. HINSDALE.

The University of Michigan.

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THE

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SYLLABUS

of a Course of Eight Lectures on

"The History of European Civilization."

BY

EARL BARNES,

Professor of Education in Leland Stanford Jr. University.

NORMAL HALL,

Wednesday Evenings, at 8 o'clock,

Beginning February 3, 1897.

BOOKS RECOMMENDED FOR THE COURSE IN GENERAL.

BUCKLE, HENRY THOMAS. History of Civilization in England. 3 vols. London and New York, 1875.

DRAPER, JOHN HENRY. History of the Intellectual Development of Europe. 2 vols. New York, 1876.

GUIZOT, FRANCOIS. History of Civilization from the Fall of the Roman Empire to the French Revolution 3 vols. Bohn Library.

LECKY, W. E. H. History of the Rise and influence of the Spirit of Rationalism in Europe. 2 vols. New York, 1889. History of European Morals. 2 vols. London, 1877.

PLOETZ, CARL. Epitome of Ancient, Mediæval and Modern History. Boston, 1889.

The History of European Civilization.

LECTURE I.

GENERAL INTRODUCTION TO THE COURSE.

1. *How to Study History.*

What is history? The realities with which history deals; the value of original sources to the general student; the value of secondary interpretations; the history of civilization really a sociological interpretation of history.

2. *Civilization; its Nature, Origin and Destiny.*

The nature of civilization. Compare a Yankee, a high caste Hindu, and a Kanaka. Definitions given by Guizot, Lecky, Buckle.

Theories to account for the origin of civilization.

It is a retrograde movement; man was created perfect; the world is a freak or accident.

It is an upward movement, due to: Divine interference from time to time; appearance of culture-heroes, Ceres, Dionysius, Pan, Quetzalcoatl; play of natural forces; natural selection.

Historical development of these two theories; the classical theory; the church view; the modern scientific view, its advocates, its opponents.

The destiny of civilization; moves in great cycles, rising to a certain point, then falling back; the world a machine for elaborating spirit; an eternal progress, the backward movements being due to slow development of the biological man as compared with the man of civilization.

Effect of a theory of civilization on our life.

3. *A General Preliminary View of History.*

Different bases for classifying historical facts; chronological, topical, sociological.

General chronological classification:

Ancient history to 300 A. D. (Incursions of Barbarians) or 476 (Fall of Rome); its divisions; primitive history, a sociological rather than a chronological division; the oriental monarchies, a geographical rather than chronological division; the classical period.

Mediæval history; from 300 or 476 A. D. to 1453 (Fall of Constantinople), or 1492 (Discovery of America). Divisions: the Dark Ages, 476 to 1000; the Scholastic Period, 1000 to 1300; Revival of Learning, 1300 to 1492.

Modern history, from 1453 or 1492 to the present time. Divisions: Renaissance, 1300 (Dante), or 1492 (Discovery of America), or to an indefinite time, 1600 (?); the Protestant Reformation, from 1377 (time of Wiclif), or 1519 (Luther's theses), to 1648 (close of Thirty Years' War).

SPECIAL REFERENCES FOR LECTURE 1.

ADAMS, B. The Law of Civilization and Decay. New York, 1895.

BAGEHOT, WALTER. Physics and Politics; or, Thoughts on the Application of the Principles of Natural Selection and Inheritance to Political Society. New York, 1876. (International Scientific Series. Appletons.)

BUCKLE. (See previous list.)

GIDDINGS, FRANKLIN H. The Principles of Sociology. New York, 1896.

HARRISON, F. Meaning of History. New York, 1894.

SPENCER, HERBERT. The Study of Sociology. New York, 1891.

LECTURE II.

EARLY ORIENTAL CIVILIZATIONS.

Countries to be considered: Egypt, India, Judea.

Remains and sources of information: buildings, objects in stone and metal, records, descendants.

Territory possessed; advantages and disadvantages for early civilization, protection, climate, soil, means of communication.

Government, despotic and oligarchic; effect on patriotism.

Religion; polytheistic; tendencies to monotheism; religious ceremonial; effect of the religious belief upon the civilization.

Classes of society; slaves and freemen; caste, its basis in belief, its effects.

Family life; monogamous with tendencies to polygamy; position of women and children.

Industrial development; agriculture, manufactures; attitude toward labor.

Knowledge; its extent; by whom possessed; how regarded; education.

Æsthetic development; buildings, sculpture, literature.

Types of men and women in demand.

General characteristics of the civilization.

Oriental contributions to civilization.

SPECIAL REFERENCES FOR LECTURE II.

BRUGSCH-BEY, HENRY. A History of Egypt Under the Pharaohs, Derived Entirely from the Monuments. London, 1879.

HERODOTUS. Cary's translation in Bohn Series.

MULLER, F. MAX. The Sacred Books of the East. Translated by various oriental scholars. 49 vols. Oxford, 1891.

OLD TESTAMENT.

RAWLINSON, GEORGE. A Manual of Ancient History. Oxford, 1869.

WILKINSON, SIR J. G. The Manners and Customs of the Ancient Egyptians. 3 vols. London, 1878.

AN EARLY ORIENTAL IDEAL OF LIFE.

THE KING, RAMSES II.

At dawn he joined in fray of battle; he went terrible to fight, as a bull terrible with pointed horns he rose against them as Mentu ordering the fray, alike valiant in entering battle, fighting fierce as a hawk, overthrowing them as Sechet (a goddess) who sends flames of fire in the face of thy foes. . . King Ramses prevailed over them, he slew them, they escaped not, they were overthrown under his steeds, they were strewn huddled in their gore.—*Records of the Past.* London, 1873. Vol. II, p. 75.

THE PRIEST.

I was equitable and truthful, a favourite of my master, honouring the precepts of my God, walking in his track, performing acts of beneficence within his temple. I was the great superintendent of public works in Pa-Amen, beloved by my master. . . He (the King) rewarded me; he distinguished me for my merit; he appointed me first prophet of Amen. . . I was a good father to my temple servants. . . I had obelisks in granite erected near it; their summits reach the firmament. The front building before it is of stone, and faces Thebes. The reservoirs and gardens are planted with trees. I constructed huge gilt doors; their summits join the sky. . . —From inscriptions on the statue of Bak-en-Khonsu. In the Glyptothek in Munich. Translated by P. J. de Horrack. *Records of the Past.* Vol. XII, p. 119.

THE OVERSEER.

I was appointed superintendent of the serfs of the temples of the gods of Mah, 3000 bulls with heifers. . . No little child have I injured; no widow have I oppressed; no fisherman have I hindered; no shepherd have I detained; no foreman of five men have I taken from his gang out for the labour. There was no poverty in my days, no starvation in my time, when there were years of famine. I ploughed all the fields of Mah to its southern and northern frontiers. I gave life to its inhabitants, making its food; no one was starved in it. I gave to the widow as to the married woman. I made no difference between the great and the little in all that I did. . . . —From the inscription of Ameni-Amenemha, in a chamber of a tomb at Benihassan. Translated by S. Birch. *Records of the Past.* Vol. XII, p. 63.

LECTURE III.

GREECE AND ROME.

Intimate relations of Greek and Roman history.

Peculiarities of the territory of Greece. How far did these peculiar conditions influence her development?

Government. Development of the democracy; its difference from modern democracies; its instability.

Religion. Its un-moral quality; its relation to art and every-day life.

Classes of society; justification of early slavery.

Social and family life; retrograde movement in woman's position with advancing civilization.

The æsthetic life: literature, drama, sculpture, painting; how related to the public life, how supported; their effect.

The ideal of life: philosophy; education.

Elements in Roman life peculiar to the Latin peoples. Roman adaptations of Greek literature, art, philosophy, feelings and beliefs.

What the blended Greek and Roman life has stood for in civilization; the influence of the classics. How explain the great excellencies attained and their decadence?

SPECIAL REFERENCES FOR LECTURE III.

CICERO. The Life and Letters of Marcus Tullius Cicero, translated by G. E. Jeans. London, 1891.

DURUY, VICTOR. History of Greece. 8 vols. London, 1892. History of Rome. 8 vols. Translated by M. H. Ripley and W. J. Clarke. Boston, 1883.

GROTE, GEORGE. History of Greece. 12 vols. New York. Harper & Bro.

HERODOTUS. (As before.)

MAHAFFY, J. P. Social Life in Greece from Homer to Menander. London, 1879.

PLUTARCH. Plutach's Lives. Translated by A. H. Clough. 5 vols. Boston, 1888.

SMITH, PHILIP. History of the World. Ancient History. 3 vols. London and New York, 1866. (Covers Egypt, Assyria, Judea, Greece, Rome.)

A GREEK IDEAL OF LIFE.

We do not copy our neighbors, but are an example to them. It is true that we are called a democracy, for the administration is in the hands of the many and not of the few. But while the law secures equal justice to all alike in their private disputes, the claim of excellence is also recognized; and when a citizen is in any way distinguished, he is preferred to the public service, not as a matter of privilege, but as the reward of merit. Neither is poverty a bar, but a man may benefit his country whatever be the obscurity of his condition. There is no exclusiveness in our public life, and in our private intercourse we are not suspicious of one another, nor angry with our neighbor if he does what he likes. . . While we are thus unconstrained in our private intercourse, a spirit of reverence pervades our public acts; we are prevented from doing wrong by respect for authority and for the laws. . .

And we have not forgotten to provide for our weary spirits many relaxations from toil; we have regular games and sacrifices throughout the year; at home the style of our life is refined; and the delight which we daily feel in all these things helps to banish melancholy. . .

Our city is thrown open to the world, and we never expel a foreigner or prevent him from seeing or learning anything of which the secret if revealed to an enemy might profit him. We rely not upon management or trickery, but upon our hearts and hands. . .

For we are lovers of the beautiful, yet simple in our tastes, and we cultivate the mind without loss of manliness. Wealth we employ, not for talk and ostentation, but when there is a real use for it. . . To sum up: I say that Athens is the school of Hellas, and that the individual Athenian in his own person seems to have the power of adapting himself to the most varied forms of action with the utmost versatility and grace. . . Such is the city for whose sake these men nobly fought and died; . . and every one of us who survive should gladly toil on her behalf. From Pericles' oration over the first dead in the Peloponnesian War. In *Jowett's Translation of Thucydides*. Oxford, 1881. vol. i, pp. 117–120.

LECTURE IV.

INCURSIONS OF THE BARBARIANS AND RISE OF CHRISTIANITY.

The Teutonic Barbarians. Who were they? Whence did they come? Their appearance; their virtues, truth, chastity, independence: their vices, intemperance, insubordination.

Political and social organization; the position of women.

How they mixed with the Romans: as slaves, small farmers, soldiers, officials, hostages. Romans among barbarians: as diplomats, traders, travelers, missionaries.

Causes of the inundation; lack of land, the sunny southland, love of adventure, the influence of leaders.

The gifts of the barbarians to civilization, and the cost.

Christianity. How it was viewed by its opponents, Pliny, Celsus, Porphyry, Julian. The new Christian doctrines; attitude toward the State, toward the family, toward knowledge. Reasons for the rapid advance of these doctrines, viewed from purely secular grounds. Modifications of Christ's teachings through the Apostles, the Church Fathers, later commentators. The union of Christian ideas, barbarian life and Roman civilization.

SPECIAL REFERENCES FOR LECTURE IV.

EMERTON, EPHRAIM. Mediæval Europe. Boston, 1894.

DURUY, VICTOR. The history of the Middle Ages. Translated by E. H. and M. D. Whitney. New York, 1891.

HODGKIN, THOMAS. Italy and her invaders. 4 vols. Oxford, 1892.

KINGSLEY, CHARLES. The Hermits. New York. The Roman and the Teuton. London, 1891.

NEW TESTAMENT.

TACITUS GERMANIA. In 2d vol. of the Works of Tacitus in Bohn Library, or in 5th vol. of Murphy's Tacitus.

THE IDEAL OF THE ANCIENT GERMANS.

The pride of a German consists in the number of his

flocks and herds; they are his only riches and in these he places his chief delight. . .

Their passion for liberty is attended with this ill consequence; when a public meeting is announced, they never assemble at the stated time. Regularity would look like obedience; to mark their independent spirit they do not convene at once, but two or three days are lost in delay. When they think themselves sufficiently numerous the business begins. Each man takes his seat, completely armed. Silence is proclaimed by the priests, who still retain their coercive authority. The king, or chief of the community, opens the debate; the rest are heard in their turn, according to age, nobility of descent, renown in war, or fame for eloquence. No man dictates to the assembly; he may persuade, but cannot command . .

In the field of action, it is disgracelul to the prince to be surpassed in valor by his companions; and not to vie with him in martial deeds is equally a reproach to his followers. If he dies in the field, he who survives him survives to live in infamy. . . This is the bond of union, the most sacred obligation. The chief fights for victory; the followers for their chiefs . . The chief must show his liberality, and the follower expects it. He demands at one time this warlike horse, at another that victorious lance imbrued with the blood of the enemy. The prince's table, however inelegant, must always be plentiful: it is the only pay of his followers—*Murphy's Translation of Tacitus' Germania*. Philadelphia, 1892. Vol. V, p. 219, 224, 226, 233.

THE IDEAL OF CHRIST.

"Then said Jesus unto his disciples, If any man will come after me, let him deny himself, and take up his cross, and follow me. For what is a man profited, if he gain the whole world, and lose his own soul? . . Suffer little children, and forbid them not, to come unto me; for of such is the kingdom of heaven . . And call no man your father upon the earth: for one is your Father which is in heaven. Neither be ye called masters: for one is your Master, even Christ."—*From the New Testament*.

LECTURE V.

THE MIDDLE AGES.

The church the central axis of civilization; its organization; its relations to the State; to education, arts and literature; its cosmopolitan character versus local narrowness of secular life.

Peculiar movements of mediævalism:

Asceticism; its origin, extent; causes of its prevalence; peculiar ideas and practices; its virtues and weaknesses as a theory of life.

The monastic life; its relations to asceticism; to public life; to manufactures, arts, education.

The Age of Faith; its philosophical basis; its effect in unifying the warring elements of the Middle Ages.

The Feudal system; its basis in belief; in local warfare; its work in unifying people and preparing for modern government.

The Crusades; their origin, extent; their effect upon the old ideas.

Chivalry; the new worship of woman; a natural reaction; its good and bad effects.

Scholasticism; its narrowness; its subject matter; its effect in awakening the rationalistic powers of the mind.

The Middle Ages misunderstood; not a period of darkness, but a period of blending, shaping, organizing, adapting man physically and mentally to the task of taking up again the burden of civilization.

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A MEDIÆVAL IDEAL OF LIFE.

ALFRED THE GREAT.

The same year, after Easter, King Alfred . . fought bravely and perseveringly against all the army of the pagans, whom, with the divine help, he defeated with great slaughter, and pursued them flying to their fortification. Immediately he slew all the men, and carried off all the booty he could find without the fortress, which he immediately laid siege to with all his army; and when he had been there fourteen days, the pagans, driven by famine, cold, fear, and last of all by despair, asked for peace.

In the meantime, the king, during the frequent wars and other trammels of this present life, the invasions of the pagans, and his own daily infirmities of body, continued to carry on the government, and to exercise hunting in all its branches; to teach his workers in gold and artificers of all kind, his falconers, hawkers and dog-keepers; to build houses, majestic and good, beyond all the precedents of his ancestors, by his new mechanical inventions; to recite the Saxon books, and especially to learn by heart the Saxon poems, and to make others learn them; and he alone never desisted from studying most diligently, to the best of his ability; he attended the mass and other daily services of religion; he was frequent in psalm-singing and prayer, at the hours both of the day and the night. He also went to the churches, as we have already said, in the night-time to pray, secretly and unknown to his courtiers. . . His bishops, too, and all ecclesiastics, his earls and nobles, ministers and friends, were loved by him with wonderful affection.

What shall I say of his repeated expeditions against the pagans, his wars, and incessant occupations of government? of the daily embassies sent to him by foreign nations, from the Tyrrhenian Sea to the farthest end of Ireland? For we have seen and read letters, accompanied with presents, which were sent to him by Abel, the patriarch of Jerusalem, What shall I say of the cities and towns which he restored, and of others which he built where none had been before? of the royal halls and chambers, wonderfully erected by his command, with stone and wood? of the royal villas constructed of stone, removed from their old sites and handsomely rebuilt by the king's command in more fitting places?—From Asser's *Annals of the Reign of Alfred the Great*, as translated in *Six Old English Chronicles* in Bohn's Antiquarian Library, pp. 62–68.

LECTURE VI.

THE RENAISSANCE AND THE PROTESTANT REFORMATION.

Precursors of the Renaissance: The great voyages and discoveries, the East, Africa, America; inventions of the mariner's compass, gunpowder, printing, paper; revival of learning; Dante, Petrarch, Boccaccio.

Work of the Renaissance: Gathers up and exploits classical remains; develops new languages and nationalities; breaks up feudalism; substitutes Copernican for Ptolemaic conception of the universe; restores men's confidence in their own faculties; provokes inquiry, encourages criticism.

The new art: its great names, Michael Angelo, Raphael; its forms, its sources of inspiration, its patrons.

Precursors of the Protestant Reformation: Catholic attempts at reformation; rise of the orders, Dominicans, Franciscans; church councils at Pisa, Constance.

Mystic movements, Tauler, Beghards, Kempis.

Biblical reformers: Waldenses and Albigenses, Wiclif, Huss.

The Protestant Reformation, the life of the Renaissance infused into religion; its leading spirits, Erasmus, Luther, Calvin; its effect on humanism, art, literature; its culmination in the Thirty Years War; rise of the Protestant sects; the Jesuits and Jansenists.

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AN EARLY RENAISSANCE IDEAL OF LIFE.

PETRARCH.

My mind was rather well-balanced than acute; adapted to every good and wholesome study, but especially prone to philosophy and poetry. And yet even this I neglected, as time went on, through the pleasure I took in sacred literature. I felt a sacred sweetness in that subject, which at times I had

despised; and I reserved poetry as a mere accomplishment. I devoted myself singly, amid a multitude of subjects, to the knowlege of antiquity; since the age in which I lived was almost distasteful to me, so much so, that had it not been for the love of those who were very dear to me, I should always have wished to have been born at any other time, and to forget the present, ever struggling to engraft myself upon the past. . . .

"Don't you recollect," Petrarch wrote years afterward to his brother, "what pains, what useless pains, we took to preserve the exquisite whiteness of our linen; what dressing and undressing there was, morning and evening; what fear lest a breath of air should disturb the elegance of our curls, or a passing horse splash our perfumed and gorgeous cloaks, or derange their folds?" . . .

I remained for many years with . . . John, the Cardinal Colonna, not, as it were, under a patron, but under a father; nay, not even that, say rather a most affectionate brother, with whom I lived as at home and in my own house.

By great good fortune I had made the acquaintance, some forty years ago, of a most learned jurisconsult, Raimondo Soranzio, the possessor of a capital library; but the work he cared for besides his law books was Livy. In this he took great delight, though, not being accustomed to read histories, he found it difficult to understand. I did what I could to assist him, on which he took me to his heart like a son, and not only lent me, but gave me some of his books. From him I had Varro, and a volume of Cicero, containing, amongst other well-known works, the books "De Oratore" and "De Legibus" (important as they always are), and, above all, the two most rare books, "De Gloria." I thought myselt the possessor of a treasure indeed. . . .

While I was thus spinning out my leisure in that retreat, on one and the same day I received letters both from the Senate at Rome and from the Chancellor of the University of Paris, sending rival invitations to me—the former from Rome, the latter from Paris—to accept the laurel crown of poetry . . I came (to Rome), and however unworthy, yet trusting and relying upon so high a sanction, I received the laurel crown, while I was still but an unfledged scholar, amid the utmost rejoicings of the Romans who were able to take part in the ceremony.—From Petrarch's Letters. In *Petrarch*. By Henry Reeves. Philadelphia, 1878.

LECTURE VII.

RISE OF NATIONAL INDUSTRIAL DEMOCRACIES, 1648–1871.

The leaders of modern Europe: France, England, Russia, Germany (Prussia), Italy.

Great movements of period:

1. Expansion of Europe by means of: British Empire, in India, Africa and America; Spanish Empire, in America; Russian Empire, in Asia.

Causes for this expansion, industrial and commercial: Search for new markets, India, China, etc.; search for new sources of wealth, metals, lumber, furs, etc., Hudson's Bay Company, etc.

2. Freedom of thought and advance of knowledge seen in:

England, Locke, Newton; France, Descartes, Rousseau, Voltaire, Cuvier, Buffon; Germany, Leibnitz, Lessing, Kant, Humboldt.

Caused by: Reaction and Reformation movement; new materials for thought and knowledge from Renaissance; discovery of America, etc.

Resulting in: Struggles of government with press and universities; Carlsbad decrees; and in:

3. Development of individualism, seen in:

Wars of independence: English-America, 1776–1783; Spanish-America, 1810–1823; Spain, Peninsular War; Germany, War of Liberation, War of 1866; Italy, wars of 1848–9 and 1860–1.

Dynastic wars of Louis XIV to preserve nationality.

Democratic revolutions: In France, 1789, 1830, 1848; England, Parliamentary advance of century; Germany, 1848; Italy, 1848. These movements made to secure manhood suffrage, popular government, equality before the law and equality of opportunity.

Romantic movement in literature and art; Victor Hugo, Heine, etc.

AN IDEAL OF LIFE CONNECTED WITH THE RISE OF THE INDUSTRIAL DEMOCRACIES.

WASHINGTON.

Where shall I begin, in opening to your view a character throughout sublime? Shall I speak of his warlike achievements, all springing from obedience to his country's will, all directed to his country's good? . . Combining the physical and moral force of all within his sphere, with irresistible weight he took his course, commiserating folly, disdaining

vice, dismaying treason, and invigorating despondency, until the auspicious hour arrived, when united with the intrepid forces of a potent and magnanimous ally, be brought to submission the since conqueror of India, thus finishing his long career of military glory with a lustre corresponding to his great name. . .

Great as was our Washington in war, and as much as did that greatness contribute to produce the American republic, it is not in war alone his pre-eminence stands conspicuous. His various talents, combining all the capacities of a statesman with those of a soldier, fitted him alike to guide the councils and the armies of our nation. Scarcely had he rested from his martial toils, when he, who had been our shield and sword, was called forth to act a less splendid but more important part.

Possessing a clear and penetrating mind, a strong and sound judgment, calmness and temper for deliberation, with invincible firmness and perseverance in resolutions maturely formed; drawing information from all; acting from himself, with incorruptible integrity and unvarying patriotism; his own superiority and the public confidence alike marked him as the man designed by Heaven to lead in the great political as well as military events which have distinguished the era of his life. . .

First in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen, he was second to none in the humble and endearing scenes of private life. Pious, just, humane, temperate and sincere; uniform, dignified and commanding, his example was as edifying to all around him as were the effects of that example lasting.—From *Funeral Oration on Washington.* By Major-General Henry Lee. In Old South Leaflets, No. 38.

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LECTURE VIII.

NOTABLE MOVEMENTS OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

In territory; the expansion of Europe into Africa and the Pacific.

In government; spread of republican institutions; steady extension of the suffrage; strengthening and perfecting of national units; rise of socialism; development of standing armies; of international arbitration, and general international activity.

In religion; rationalizing of belief; rise of new sects; activity of religious bodies in matters of social life, education and politics.

In society and family life; extreme recognition of the rights of the individual; breaking down of old class distinctions; rise of new aristocracies of wealth and intellect; the emancipation of woman, as to property, education, social restraint, suffrage; new conception of the marriage relation, an equal union justified by love.

In industry; perfecting of control over powers of nature; new machinery; rapid development of new industries; rise of great corporations; of unions among working men.

In literature; cheapening of books and papers; multiplication of periodicals; new extensions of literature.

In knowledge; the worship of science; tendencies toward new forms of mysticism.

In education; its control by the State; its extension to new subjects of study, to new classes of people.

Types of men and women in demand; complexity and uncertainty of this demand; self-centered character its key-note.

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A NINETEENTH CENTURY IDEAL OF LIFE.

GLADSTONE.

Mr. Gladstone is a kind of steam-engine on two legs, with heart of fire and lungs of steel, pursuing his unhasting and unresting way at a pace which leaves all other men far behind. His distinguishing characteristics as a man of business are: First, an instinct of order that is dominant. Secondly, an immense faculty for eliciting the best services which secretaries and adjuncts can render. Thirdly, a phenomenally retentive memory. Fourthly, an immense faculty of concentration, and of diverting his thoughts from any subject at will. . .

As an expositor of an intricate and involved subject, Mr. Gladstone is a veritable genius. In his Budget speeches he made financial figures as facinating as a fairy tale, and he could make even a speech on the Irish Land qestion interesting. As a sophist no one can beat him among living men. The marvelous subtlety of his intellect enables him to make whatever cause he undertakes to defend appear for the time the only possible cause that a decent man could espouse. . .

He possesses the first of all qualifications for inspiring faith in others—an implicit faith in himself. . .

When he sees clearly what ought to be done, he does it; and it is this habit of walking according to the light that is given him, turning neither to the right hand nor the left, that has given him his unique hold upon the minds and the imagination of his countrymen. . .

The belief has become a fixed conviction with the masses of the voters that he is animated by a supreme regard for the welfare of the common people, and an all-constraining conviction of his obligation to God.—From *William T. Stead's Character Sketch of Gladstone.* In the *Review of Reviews*, May, 1892.

THE RELATIVITY OF KNOWLEDGE.

Professor Edward Howard Griggs.

Attitude of the unreflecting human mind in never questioning the reality of its cognitions. Naive realism in all early thought. The inevitable doubt as to the objective truth of subjective experience when a certain point is reached in the development of consciousness and reflection. Illustrations of this in Oriental thought.

Peculiar interest and value in the evolution of Greek thought. Presentation in comparatively simple form of the normal phases in the development of the human mind.

Naive realism in the Ionic natural philosophers. Effort to find the common principle in nature by reducing the variety of the universe to a single element.

Reaction of the Pythagoreans. Effort to find the determining principles of the universe in abstract formal relations Hence the significance of number as the symbol of quantitative relations. Union with this of mystical elements.

Insufficiency of quantitative relations. Perception of qualitative differences. Development of Eleatic metaphysics. Doctrine of the Infinite and of Being.

Unique place of Heraclitus. Perception of the universality of change. Resulting philosophy of gloom.

Reaction of the later physicists against the metaphysicians. The atomic theory.

Throughout these pre-Sophistic philosophers no questioning of the reality of knowledge. No investigation of the nature of mind.

Discovery of the problem of knowledge by the Sophists. Resulting reaction. Introspection and doubt. Identification of truth with opinion, and denial of reality in ethical laws. Significance of Sophistic philosophy as "a return of the human spirit upon itself."

Immediate results of Sophistic philosophy : speculative skepticism ; practical weakening of morals. Yet utter impossibility of a return to earlier attitudes. Necessity to work out and through the problem of knowledge. Hence the central importance of the problem of knowledge in Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle.

Strong ethical instincts of Socrates. Belief in the correspondence of what is fundamental in the human intelligence with the objective truth of things. Thus the principle of an induction among conceptions. The effort to get back to the universals of thought.

Further deepening of the contrast between the sensible and the ideal in Plato. His theory of ideas. Treatment of the problem of knowledge. Fundamental significance of the problem throughout Plato's system.

The more objective system of Aristotle. Yet the central importance of the problem of knowledge. Aristotle's treatment of it.

Subsequent disintegration of Greek thought. The turning to narrower practical questions in later systems. Yet the impossibility of avoiding the problem of the nature of knowledge when once it is presented.

The significance of the development of Greek philosophy with reference to later aspects of the problem of knowledge. Similar character of the problem in all epochs and individuals where it appears. Greater complexity in later thought, but the same essential elements in the problem.

The two worlds: the world of objective reality, and the world of ideas or subjective experience. The relation between the two not simple and easily explained. The character of each as a universe. The complete character of the subjective world of ideas, for every individual, even with limited experience. The conception of space and time in early phases of conscious reflection. Later experience as developing the "content" of what is formally already a completed whole. Hence the perplexing character of the problem of knowledge.

The unsolved problems at the bottom of all science. These fundamental enigmas as close to physics and chemistry as to psychology or biology. Illustrations: the conception of an atom; the divisibility of matter; Spinoza's two infinite lines; freedom and determinism.

The character of all knowledge as a knowledge of relations and processes where each term in its absolute nature is unknown. The problem of Kant. Correspondence of his thought with that of the epoch of Socrates and the Sophists.

Our knowledge dependent upon our relation to the objective universe. That to which we are in no way related non-existent for us. The possibility of a world of space of two or four dimensions. Our inability to *imagine* such a world although we may *conceive* its possible existence.

Hence the relativity of knowledge. The character of all science. Illustration in our knowledge of the law of gravitation.

Effort nevertheless to build a completed system of philosophy. Necessity of this in all reflecting minds. The dependence of every action upon an assumed answer to all ultimate problems. How today's choice and action is determined by our attitude toward the questions of the unity, order, and rationality of the universe. The practical answer to the questions of God, Freedom, and Immortality implied in every action of life.

Thus the practical dilemma — the "Sphinx riddle." Necessity of constantly answering the never finally answered problems, if we are to live at all.

The constant danger of dogmatism. Extreme difficulty in the practical recognition of the relativity of knowledge. The misuse of every theory the world has seen. Dogmatism in theology, philosophy, science. The same qualities in dogmatism everywhere: the distortion of the perspective in which facts are seen; the failure to see those not in line with a preconceived theory. The paralyzing effect of such dogmatism on thought and action.

The necessity of trusting the truth that comes to us through study and experience. The need to be con-

stantly open to new truth, which will change the perspective in which the old is seen, with every step of knowledge and experience. Hence the explanation of the fact that —

> "Our little systems have their day —
> They have their day and cease to be."

The practical solution of the paradox in attaining light enough to find the guiding line, and thus to take the next step in action. The treatment of this solution in "Rabbi Ben Ezra," "The Ancient Sage," and "In Memoriam."

Faith as a recognition of the rationality of the universe, and a trust that the tendencies we find in the part are carried out in the whole. Universal presence of this faith in all the progress of science and all the action of life. The necessity for such faith as a result of the relativity of knowledge.

General recognition in all ages of the necessity for such faith. Illustrations: Mysticism in relation to scholasticism in the Middle Ages; poetry and science; Beatrice and Virgil in Dante. The "Wisdom" and "Faith" emphasized by Tennyson.

Connection of such faith with experience. Its character as the horizon line determined by the point of vision of the actual life. The insufficiency of all narrow logic. The need of trusting life and experience. The necessity, implied in all recognition of the relativity of knowledge, of trusting that the unity, law, and order, which we find through science and life, holds of the universe indefinitely beyond the range of our vision.

UNIVERSITY OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK.

TWENTY-SIXTH CONVOCATION.

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P. 202

SHALL ACADEMIC STUDIES BE TAUGHT IN NORMAL SCHOOLS?

By Principal F. B. PALMER, Fredonia Normal School.

Shall Academic Studies be Taught in Normal Schools?

By Principal F. B. Palmer, Fredonia Normal School.

Mr. Chancellor, Ladies and Gentlemen of the Convocation.—In the Olympian contests he who outstripped all his competitors in running, he whose strength and skill gave him mastery over an antagonist, or he whose fleet steeds coursed the stadia with swiftest feet, received the prize, and was crowned with victory. In the contests of chivalry he who unhorsed his rival, or caused him to bite the dust, won the hand of the fair lady to the favor of whose love he ascribed his victory. In the contest where truth is the stake not he who convinces but he who is convinced receives the prize. To one sincerely engaged in this contest the most skillful argument in favor of a wrong conclusion does not count against the most simple statement of truth. Error clothed in the most brilliant language loses all its luster when placed side by side with truth. The most weighty and convincing proofs of the false, kick the beam when put into the balance against truth. In this contest, too, the victor has another advantage; he is assured at the outset that he will not be wronged by the caprice of the judges. No herald is required to proclaim the victory. Truth rises of her own accord and kisses the lips of the champion who takes her glove, and fights manfully, that he may possess her for himself; and although the touch may not make them eloquent, it will give sweetness and strength to the words they utter, and all who really love her, even though enemies before, will love him now and applause will be given only for what truth has done. For my own part, I desire in this discussion, and I have no doubt that those who are to follow me will desire, to keep the eye fixed on truth alone as the goal.

Holding this purpose in mind, I shall strive to present, with equal fairness, every phase of the main question at issue that seems to me important in leading to a just conclusion. I shall not attempt to argue for one side of it merely, leaving it for some one else to champion the other side. No doubt others will view it in a different light from myself, and give greater force to some reasons than I shall allow, and there will be a variety of opinions expressed and argued; yet, so far as I am concerned, I desire to see the question discussed with a common purpose inspiring all. Though there may be differences in the point of view, the end should be the same.

The educational question is broader than any one man's intelligence. We may not hope to see much done to settle disputed points even in such an assembly as this. But that which is attempted should be considered with the broadest intelligence we can bring to bear upon the issues raised. We should not be swayed by any narrow and selfish views of what we conceive to be merely the immediate interest of one class of schools, or advantageous in one line of educational work. Nor should we accept, without question, what exists as a foundation well laid for the future structure. Some things may have been done well and some not. It is possible that the future will require modifications which will radically change some of our most cherished notions. So far as we can, we ought to go back in such discussions as this to ultimate principles, and take nothing for granted.

I might say that the normal system as it exists to-day, embraces instruction in academic subjects, in our own country and in all countries where schools are established for the instruction of teachers. I might trace the history of this system, and I should find that the same had always been true. The first teachers' classes were formed of students engaged in the common studies of the school, and in connection with the regular school for academic instruction. The students in the first teachers' seminaries established by the State, which was in Prussia, the home of the normal school, were required by express provision, to continue for two years the studies pursued in the primary schools. I might say that wherever I look I find that the term normal school, or teachers' seminary, means a school established to fit teachers to teach, by giving them instruction and training in the subjects taught in schools generally, and in the science, methods, and history of education. The curricula of these schools everywhere, allot from one-half to three-fourths of the time to academic subjects. I might say that the question raised at this hour is, whether the normal schools shall remain normal schools, or shall be changed to something else and be called by the same name. Here I might rest the case, and demand of others the reasons for the change they would make. This seems to me perfectly fair and legitimate, if I were conducting this discussion as a debate, and indeed, it would seem to be the only proper procedure; and I should require reasons sufficiently strong to justify reversing the uniform practical judgment of the men *and governments* engaged in the work for more than 150 years. I might say, if the question is to be opened at all, let it be opened by those who propose a different system. But I prefer to consider the question as already open, and review from the beginning the reasons for the present system, and find, as truly as I can, what a normal school ought to do.

In my quest for actual reasons I naturally go first to Prussia. But when I go there and ask what reasons they give for teaching academic subjects in the teachers' seminaries, I am told they never give any reasons. They do not discuss the questions. They have never thought of not doing it. The system has grown up as naturally as wings are furnished to a dove. It began in charity, without State aid, when suitable persons who were willing to devote themselves to teaching were offered free instruction by the benevolent, to prepare them for their duties. They seemed to need to know what to teach quite as much as how to teach, and benevolence took them where it found them, not thinking there was any essential difference in their claims upon it, whether they needed instruction in arithmetic or in the methods of teaching arithmetic, to make teachers out of them. This system was adopted by the State, and extended from State to State with no apparent thought that a preparation of teachers in subject-matter is not a legitimate part of normal school work. So far as I can discover no serious attempt has ever been made to justify the system in this respect by any line of affirmative argument. The question has been opened by objectors, and the defense has been desultory like the attacks. Let us see then if we can find by an independent investigation an affirmative argument of weight, before we consider the objections that may be raised.

In looking at the question from this point of view it presents to me the four following propositions for consideration:

1. The teachers of a class should be more thoroughly instructed in the subject he teaches than the average pupils in the class.
2. The average pupils of a class become teachers of succeeding classes of the same kind and grade.
3. There must be supplementary study of the subject-matter somewhere or the work of the class will degenerate.
4. This supplementary study is work done in preparation for teaching and is essentially normal school work.

Let us consider those propositions in their order.

1. The teacher should be more thoroughly instructed than the average of his class. Occasionally a particularly bright pupil may display a keener insight into a subject, or a broader comprehension of it, than the teacher, without injury to the teacher's influence in the

school; and sometimes a teacher may take up an extra subject in which he is no better prepared than his class, and in consequence of his better general preparation be able to keep in advance of them, and teach his subject creditably. But he can not afford to be as poor as the average in his classes, nor trust to his ability to keep ahead of them without thorough preparation to begin with, except in rare instances. One of the secretaries of the Board of Regents recently stated to the normal school principals of the State, that he did not consider the knowledge of arithmetic, grammar and geography required to pass Regent's examinations in those subjects enough for those who are to become teachers, nor did he think it practicable to make the examinations high enough to be a test of such merit, at least not in all these subjects, for they were made for the average of the class, many of whom did not care for so much work. But if the average of the present class can not teach the class properly up to the standard now required, neither could the average of an advanced class, were it feasible to advance the standard, properly teach that class up to its standard. The principle stated, thus, must be considered as general.

2. It is the average pupil of a class that is to become the teacher of succeeding classes of the same kind. The brighter scholars are not satisfied to become teachers in the schools where they have received their preliminary preparations. They will either seek positions in higher schools, where they finish their general education, or more probably engage in other professions, or in business. It is from amongst average students, or students below the average, that the mass of teachers must come. An intelligent member of a board in charge of a union school recently told me he had been looking over the names of the graduates of their school who had gone out to teach, and who were actually doing the teaching in the schools around, and five-sixths of them were below the average of their respective classes, and had been so in all the grades. This may or may not have been an extreme case, or it may have been an extreme statement of a common case. I do not know, but it seems to me certain that we can not fairly expect to get our average teacher from the scholars that stand above the average of their classes. If any one's experience justifies a higher expectation, I believe it must be an exceptional, as well as a happy experience.

3. In the third place, it follows from the two preceding propositions, that the average teacher must have instruction supplementary to that received in the grade of schools which he is to teach, or the *school will* degenerate in his hands. It matters not how high the

standard reached by a school, the average graduate can not take the school, with no further preparation than that received in it, and maintain the standard. The principal of a high school does college work, and a professor in college spends years of study on the one subject he is to teach before he ventures to take all the classes in which he was himself a student. I have spoken above of the lack of sufficient knowledge to teach the common English branches in the case of the average student who passes the Regents' examinations, and of the necessity for his having supplementary work in these subjects if he is to become a teacher. When we remember that this was said of the better class of graded schools, picked schools, less than 300 in the entire State, and think of the more than 10,000 rural schools lower in grade and more poorly equipped, we may imagine how pressing the necessity is.

4. In the fourth place, the supplementary work spoken of is required as a preparation to teach. It is a part of the preparation which the profession demands. It is as essential to the successful teacher as good methods. It is as important to the school that the teacher have this preparation as skill in teaching. So evident has all this been that it has never been questioned until recently after the practice of it for a century and a half.

Were there time, many things might be said to show the naturalness of this connection of instruction in subject-matter with methods and practice, from the reciprocal influence of each upon the other, and the combined influence of the two together in building up a professional spirit and character. A teacher in a normal school keeps more constantly in mind the principles of methods which are there taught, and the pupil has the application of methods constantly before him. In the direct study of methods, too, the pupil has the practice of his own teachers immediately before him, to illustrate and enforce the principles he is learning. And, again, from the associations and the constant appeals of his normal teachers, he studies his subjects with the prospect of his teaching them ever before him, and thus acquires a habit of looking at the subjects he studies from a teacher's point of view. He tries to clear up, not simply the difficulties of a pupil, who prepares to make a recitation, but of a teacher, who is to teach the subjects. He goes over the ground, not simply as a follower, but as a guide. These, and other points of a similar character might be dwelt upon, but there is only time remaining to ask what reasons may be offered for dropping out from the normal schools this, which has been, up to the present time, the larger part of their work.

1. In the first place it may be said we do not want unnecessarily to duplicate the expensive provisions for education. There are many schools in which sufficiently thorough instruction in subject-matter is now given. Let these schools do this work and let the normal schools give methods and practice which can not be given so thoroughly in the non-professional schools. I want to give all the force to this statement it will bear. The claim that a sufficient amount of thorough instruction is given in some of our best schools is just. If this were not recognized by the normal school there would be good ground for complaint. But the contrary is the fact. The normal school courses are so arranged as to provide for the graduates of such schools, and pupils in them are encouraged to complete their courses at home and thus go to some normal school and take their methods and practice alone. It would be a great gain if the normal school could get ten times as many of this class of students the coming year as they have had the past. And I have no doubt that this result would be gained, if the union schools and school boards would make the same effort to secure for the teachers of the State thorough preparations in methods and practice which the normal schools make to secure thorough scholarship.

But after all has been granted that has been claimed for the class of schools spoken of, they are the exceptions and not the rule. Would it not be possible, it may be asked, to make them the rule and not the exception, and thus avoid the necessity for supplementary instruction in subject-matter for those desiring to become teachers? No, not possible if the propositions I have been arguing are as true as they seem to me. These schools have superior teachers, but the teachers of all the schools considered together must rank with the average no matter where this standard is placed, and as a class they must have instruction that is supplementary to that given in their schools. More than one-half the pupils in our schools at present are classed as rural, and besides those a large part of the other schools could not support supplementary classes without a violation of the very principle of economy which is here advocated. The only way is to have the supplementary work specially provided for.

2. In the second place it may be said, that pupils in the average school may be compelled to go to the better class of non-professional schools and take their supplementary training before being admitted to the normal school. Why? Is it not in the line of their professional work? Yes. We are only considering work that is done and required to fit teachers for their profession. Would it save the *pupils money?* No, for they would be obliged to go from home the

same as they may now go to a normal school. Would they have better advantages? It has been the subject of complaint that the normal schools could afford so much better advantages as to render competition with them unfair. Have the few schools that have been so enterprising and fortunate as to secure superior advantages for their home pupils, a claim on the great body of pupils outside, to come to them and swell their numbers and help to fill their treasury? This is a narrow and selfish view to take of the question of education. While it has been thought best, since the common schools are under local management, that they should be largely supported by local taxation, yet, by the abolition of the rate bill, by the passage of the free school law, by the organization of union school districts, through the Superintendent of Public Instruction and other educational managers, and through the Governor and Legislature, the State has said again and again that its policy is to educate its youth so far as it undertakes their education, by a tax on property, and not by a tax on its children. Why should there be a thought of competition, and not rather a strife of honorable emulation to do the most good that can be done for the boys and girls, that are to be the men and women of the future State? What higher claim has a poor boy in the city of New York that the State should authorize his father to vote a tax on the Astors and Vanderbilts, to give him a superior education than the poor country boy, that the State should make such provision that he, in order to have as good instruction, should not be required himself to pay a tuition tax in addition to the extra expense of living away from home? If in the transition from the old rate bill system, the State has not as yet found it practicable, by the township system or any other means, to remedy this inequality, it must certainly seek for a remedy. The time will soon come when the State will be held as criminally negligent if more than one-half of its children of school age are compelled to take up with such inferior advantages, or pay for that which other children, by grace of the State's taxation laws, receive free. Why should it be offered as a reason for complaint against the State if, meanwhile, it provides in a small measure for work below the highest, which the best schools can do, and supplements the best instruction which the larger portion of the children can get, without tuition-tax, with free tuition for such as are to become teachers, in the natural place for such instruction, the normal schools? Is not the objection a selfish one, and would it not be better to seek some other remedy for evils complained of than to force an unnatural separation of the different branches of legitimate work in the preparation of teachers for the schools of the State, even if such attempt *should result in a slight* temporary relief?

I purposely omit to speak of the many incidental troubles of which some schools complain, either to palliate them, or suggest remedies. There is need of better support, there is lack of harmony and unity, there is not everywhere that generous sympathy for all which ought to run through the brotherhood of those who profess to be educated. But, whatever the relation of the normal schools to these evils, it does not affect the great principle we are discussing, and I desire to keep that separate, and discuss it on its merits, and leave other questions to other men or to another time. The question before us now is whether, as a matter of principle, any instruction in subjects should be given in normal schools. It seems to me from the considerations given above, without any appeal to the history of these schools, that there will always be a necessity for supplementary instruction for teachers, whatever the condition of our public schools, and that the State has a right to furnish this instruction at public expense, if it has a right to furnish any instruction for the education of teachers; and that it is wise, economical and fitting, to teach the academic subjects, so far as they must be taught as supplementary work, in the same schools in which methods of teaching are given.

ARE OUR SCHOOLS IN DANGER?

THE GREAT SCHOOL-BOOK COMBINATION.

A SHORT time ago I gave to the *New York Evening Post* the result of my experience of twenty-five years as a publisher of school-books, and tried calmly to point out the conditions necessary for the production of good books, and the dangers so seriously threatening the prosperity of the business, the schools, and public morals. We spend a vast sum of money for the education of our children. We build costly school-houses, and employ the best teachers we can secure, paying them liberal salaries. For each child, — reckoning the value of his time, clothing, food, tuition, interest on money invested in school-houses, books, etc., — it costs about $150 a year. The school-books cost less than one dollar of this sum, and yet they play a very important part in the result. While a few teachers are able to do good work independently of books, the great majority rely very largely upon them for the value of their instruction. It then becomes of the utmost importance to find out what are the conditions for producing the best books and securing their use. Would it not be poor economy to spend $150 a year for a child's education and then give him an inferior book to save twenty-five cents, if by so doing we should lose one-half of the value of the $150?

To produce good books, it is necessary to secure good authors and editors, and they must be liberally paid. Many books have to be made before the good one is produced. It costs time and money to try these experiments. The business must yield a fair profit to attract men of the necessary ability to engage in it. Important as it is to produce good books, it is no less important that they should be used in the schools. To insure this we must elect to the school boards competent men and women, who know the value of books, and can be relied upon to secure them, no matter how active and unscrupulous may be the influences used against them.

If it were generally known that in certain sections of the country money was freely spent by publishers to elect their men on school boards, that they were employing school officers and teachers to

Earl Barnes

G. A. PLIMPT
FRED B. GINN
JUSTIN H. SM
T. P. BALLAR
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act as agents, whenever they could, and were threatening others who opposed them with loss of positions, it would not prove "profitable business."

If a great combination, controlling four-fifths of all the books in the country, publicly boasts that it will crush all publishers that do not join it, by giving their own new books without charge in exchange for those of other houses in the schools, and employing all the means that wealth can control for that purpose, is it not time that the people should begin to think what effect this will have upon the schools if accomplished?

We have given the best years of our life to trying to produce good books and place them on the market, by honorable methods, at a fair price. We must leave the result of our efforts to the judgment of others. The people have the whole question in their own hands. If they think it is safe and best for their schools to have the publishing and supplying of all their books absolutely in the control of a single house, all that is necessary will be to take new books for old ones, free of charge, for a few years. Such a course will drive all the educational publishers from the field, and the political wire-puller will have it wholly to himself.

Should the American Book Company by even exchanging the books of their competitors in the schools narrow down the holdings of other houses so that it will be impossible for them to continue business at a profit, it is easy to see that the day when these houses will have to relinquish the field will not be far distant. When the American Book Company have the entire business in their own hands, it may be natural for them to sit down and calculate how much it has cost to get rid of their competitors, and to say to themselves, "Now it is only fair that the public, who have had the benefit of these free books so long, should pay for them." The pay may be exacted in several ways,— by raising the price of their books gradually; by giving less discounts; by cheapening the cost of manufacture; by discouraging the sale of their best books, which pay large copyrights to the authors; etc., etc. When, however, they have assessed this amount on the public, is it in accord with human nature to expect that they will stop there? But it may be said that it will not be safe for them to make too much profit on the sale of their books: the public will rebel, and publish for themselves, by States or otherwise.

Now, it is well for us all to look this question fairly in the face in order to comprehend the difficulties to be overcome. In the first place, as I have carefully developed the question below, it requires not only special talent and a long term of service on the part of publisher and editor, but a large outlay of money and time, to produce a good book, under the most favorable conditions. After the American Book Company shall have driven from the field all the trained men in either department, it will not be easy to establish independent houses. There will not only be a lack of ability and experience, but it will require at least $2,000,000 of direct capital to establish houses as good as the present ones. After five years' control of the whole field, the American Book Company will be twice as powerful as at present. Now it is one of the strongest political organizations in the country. It has important interests in every town and city in the land. It has not only a large corps of able and trained agents travelling all the time, but sub-agents and local politicians in all important centres. It is looking after legislation in the various States, and lately we have seen many laws framed for binding them to adopt books for long periods.

Notwithstanding the great power of this remarkably developed political organization and the millions at its command from its vast monopoly, it will lose its terrors when the American people fully realize its evil influence on the educational institutions of the country. Let the press, the teachers, and the committees jealously guard their rights, and punish by exposure and loss of patronage any infringements, and timid capital will keep to its own legitimate channels. It is not simply a question between rival publishing houses, but one of vital importance to the schools.

EDWIN GINN.

[From the *New York Evening Post.*]

EDUCATIONAL *VERSUS* POLITICAL INTERESTS — STATE AND CORPORATE MONOPOLIES *VERSUS* FREE COMPETITION.

About a year ago the four large houses of Van Antwerp, Bragg & Company, Ivison, Blakeman & Company, A. S. Barnes & Company, and D. Appleton & Company, were consolidated into the American Book Company. At that time I tried very hard to persuade them not to form this company, for I feared that it would tend to stir up fresh legislation in regard to the book business, which has generally been an injury both to the publishers and the public. The tendency is to emphasize cheapness rather than quality; and when a State or a county has uppermost the question of price, the result necessarily is, in books as in everything else, to get an inferior article. Then the effect is bad, also, in another direction. While the Commissioners charged with selecting the books for the State in the first place may perform their duty intelligently, yet it offers a great inducement for the publisher to secure the adoption of his books by methods that cannot be commended. There is also danger that each succeeding board will have members upon it more or less favorable to the interests of certain publishers. So far as my knowledge of the business goes, the best condition of affairs has been, and is to-day, in those States where each town and city decides the book question for itself. In every State different localities require different standards. Then where the towns select their own committees, they are generally made up of the best citizens in the town, and the best qualified to perform the duties required of such a board. The amount of money involved in settling the question for a single town is not an undue inducement to the publisher, and it is more likely that the committee will decide the question on its merits.

The question of price is not, and should not be, the most important question in selecting books; for, as gathered from statistics, the average cost of school-books to each pupil throughout the United States is something less than one dollar a year, while the yearly expense of educating a pupil, reckoning the cost of his living, his clothing, the value of his time, the tuition, interest on money invested in buildings, etc., at a low estimate certainly amounts to $150. And yet the books have a very important bearing upon the question of education. There are many teachers who are capable of doing good work independently of the text-book, but by far the greater number rely almost wholly upon it for the value of their instruction. It is safe to estimate that at least twenty-five per cent of the worth of the average teacher's work depends upon the text-book. Is it wise economy, therefore, to use inferior books, though we may save the whole price to the pupil, if we are in danger of losing twenty-five per cent of the $150 yearly expended? No, it is not cheaper books that are wanted, but better ones. The public can well afford to allow the publisher and editor a fair margin of profit to encourage the best production possible.

Now, what are the conditions most favorable for the production of the best books? Is it well for publishers to unite in one huge monopoly? What inducement would there be for securing better books if the old ones in use were not in danger of being displaced? Would they look favorably upon publishing a series of new books if it would be an extra expense to them of at least $100,000 to put them in the place of the old ones? I am very much afraid that as human nature goes, it would take a very strong argument to convince them that there was any necessity for publishing the new books under such circumstances. If, on the contrary, there were several large firms competing sharply with each other constantly for the market, each hoping that a new series might yield $100,000 profit, instead of costing $100,000 extra to issue, would not such a condition be vastly more favorable to the production of the best books? Would not such an inducement tend to more activity in looking for the best educational talent, in order that better books might be produced?

The publisher may conduct his business with a view to the production of the best books, trusting to merit in the long run to reward his efforts, or he may produce such as the politician can use to advantage for securing the favor of the average teacher and committeeman. The former we may designate as the educational, the latter as the political, publisher.

To be successful as an educational publisher one should himself be well informed, and have an intimate acquaintance with the schools. He should also possess a good knowledge of human nature, enabling him to read character readily. When a manuscript is presented, he should know whether it is good, and if so, whether the schools need such a work. To assist him in a correct opinion he will seek the best advice obtainable. Much depends upon his corps of advisers. Here will come into play his power of reading men. There are plenty of good scholars, not, however, an abundance of men knowing the wants of schools and the qualities of a book best suited to them. A level-headed scholar is required — one whose judgment can be relied on. The educational publisher will not sit idly in his office, waiting for writers to deluge him with manuscripts on every subject under the sun, but will carefully study courses of instruction, and where he finds the greatest defects he will begin his work. The neglected field is likely to prove most profitable, since he will meet here the least competition. His success as a publisher is decided largely by his judgment of men as authors, critics, and agents. After he has selected the lines in which he will work, the hunt begins. He looks over the leading teachers. From them he may hope for the successful book. He tries one. The book is correct in subject-matter, but poorly arranged. Another writer is suggestive, bright, and original, but careless. A third is careful, but lacks expression. It is rare that all the qualities essential to the successful book-writer are found in one person. Often it becomes necessary to unite several men upon a single work, and here comes in the most difficult task of all. One knows his subject, another is painstaking, a third understands the best form of expression; but to get each to appreciate the value of the other's work, and to continue heartily to labor together for the completion of the book, is a task old Hercules himself might well be proud of accomplishing. Before the good book appears at least fifty manuscripts must be read and a dozen sets of plates made. The successful book must stimulate the great mass of pupils and teachers, and to do this must not be too hard for the lower nor too easy for the upper half. When the publisher thinks he has fulfilled all the conditions, then he must await the test of the school-room. This verdict is often disappointing. Unless a book is satisfactory and remains in use more than five years, it is a failure from the publisher's point of view, for it takes that time for him to get back what it has cost. The margin of profit seems to be very great; but when a dollar book has to be sold to the trade for seventy-five cents, and when it costs twenty-five or thirty cents for paper, printing, and binding, and twenty-five more, on an average, for clerk-hire, agents, gift books, advertising, postage, rent, and interest on plates, stock, capital, etc., there is left about twenty-five cents to be divided between author and publisher, — a pretty close margin to offset all the risks of this business. The author gets nearly one-half of the net profit, as far as our experience goes — a pretty generous division, as he takes no financial risk, and his books are very largely made up from the results of the school-room work for which he has already been paid. It is commonly supposed that the quality of a book decides the number of copies sold; but if the forces could be accurately calculated, it would be found that not more than one-third of the sales are due to the author, the other two-thirds to the brains of the agent and the publisher, and to the capital invested. A few books sell themselves to a great extent, but quite as many owe their success almost wholly to the way they are placed on the market. This line of work offers a rare opportunity for a man who has the genius to associate the best talent in planning wise courses of study and making the books needed for carrying out the same.

The political publisher works on a very different plan. He wants a popular book, one that will be attractive at first sight, and so easy that the great majority will favor it at once. It must have an abundance of pictures, large type, and little matter on the page. Other things being equal, the most influential teacher is selected for the work. It does not follow that the best teachers are the best writers, nor the best writers the best teachers. The influential teacher will be sought in important cities or schools to make a book, even if the publisher already has one on the subject. He wants that teacher to favor his other books, and does not mind spending a few hundred dollars on his plates, whether the work is good or not. On this basis he will readily get his books into use, though the material may be scanty and the merit scantier. Such books appeal to the lower half of the teachers and pupils, but fail to stimulate or interest the upper portion, and in a short time become unsatisfactory. They would naturally soon be displaced by the better ones but for the fact that the publisher has secured the leading political influences that control the introduction and use of books.

Do I mean to say that a poor book can be kept in the schools any length of time? Yes. To-day many large cities and towns are using in the schools books which the teachers have for years tried to get rid of. Two or three determined men on a board of education can generally prevent a change, especially when a publisher has trained all his forces on the other members. Two or three men will almost always be absent from meetings; others have projects to accomplish, and will agree to stay away or vote against a change if it will gain them votes. The influential friends of each committeeman are known, and some of them will happen to have important business with these men on the very night of the meeting. The political boss of the city controls several votes. There are many other influences known to politicians, which they understand how to use to the best advantage; and as there is naturally a strong prejudice against changes, one may readily see how difficult it must be to get rid of a book backed by a strong house.

This brings us to the question which is uppermost in the public mind at the present time. If a single house can maintain its books in use for fifteen years against the wishes of the teachers, what must be the lifetime of a book when five of the most powerful houses in the trade, controlling three-fourths of all the schoolbooks in the country, are united? The combination resents being called a Trust. But why are Trusts so obnoxious to the public? Because they are monopolies. How many Trusts control three-fourths of any trade? The people care nothing for the form of the organization. It is the aim of the concern. Is it to crush out free competition? If so, the people will find some way to meet it. Does it claim the schools now using its books as its own peculiar property, and has it put up its sign with this warning: "Whoever dares to trespass on these premises by selling any of his books here will speedily rue it, for we shall displace his publications wherever we can find them, at any cost. It shall be war to the knife. We have freely spent our time and money for twenty years in acquiring the trade of these schools. We have the political influence and money necessary to hold them, and we propose to protect our vested property"?

This is a bold position, and the company might be able to carry out such a policy if it were in the sugar or oil trade. The publisher of school-books must transact his business on entirely different principles, for his relations to the public are much closer in many respects. The public pays a great deal of money for educational purposes, and must see to it that every facility is furnished to get the best results. As before stated, text-books are an important factor in the problem. The great majority of teachers depend almost wholly upon them in giving their instruction. It is important, therefore, that they should have the best. Every town and city in most States has the control of books in its own hands. Whether the publisher will or not, he must take the public into consideration, as it seems to have some voice in this matter. While one set of publishers is spending a large portion of time and money in manipulating votes to put in and hold in their books, others are spending their time and money in looking into the condition of the schools, and are planning with the best teachers and scholars many good series of books that will be a great help to education, and they claim the right to sell these books, wherever the people wish them, without being treated to fire and sword. All publishers have certain rights. They may get whom they can to write their books, pay them for it, print and bind as they please, fix prices, advertise as freely as they like, and ask the people to buy; but if any organization, controlling three-fourths of the business, claims that it has a perpetual right to supply its books to these schools, and that the public shall buy no others, it somewhat exceeds the proper limits of the trade, and may not be surprised if the people question this position, and take matters into their own hands. One of two things will happen — either the public will clear away all obstructions and buy such books as they wish, where they wish, or they will set up the publishing business for themselves.

With all their shortcomings I think that publishers in general may claim that in the last twenty-five years they have done a good deal to advance the cause of general education, and have made American text-books to-day probably superior to those of any other nation. It has taken a great deal of patient, intelligent, hard labor on the part of both authors and publishers to do this. Are we now in a moment of supreme folly about to lose all that advantage? Well knowing the sensitiveness to and prejudice against monopolies, we organize a company which is so powerful as to crush out all competitors in a short time, unless the public come to their aid.

The political element has always been the worst enemy to both publisher and public. The more attention given to "setting up the forces" necessary to introduce and hold in books, the less will be given to improving them. Many have been the complaints of book "rings" fastening themselves on certain cities and States so closely that no changes could be made. Teachers have lost their places or been promoted according as they opposed or favored certain books. Many committeemen have been unduly active for certain books without any one's being able to assign any sufficient cause for it.

The present seems to be a critical time in the book business. The more we can develop our business on the educational, and the further we can get from the political basis, the better it will be for the public, and whatever is better for the public will surely be better for the trade in the long run.

The organization of the American Book Company, however, uniting as it does five of the large houses, and controlling ninety per cent of the grammar-school book business of the country, is a move, it seems to me, in the wrong direction; for it multiplies fivefold the political power, and hence increases five times the dangers to the business. Any trade that is conducted from the political standpoint calls into play the lower order of faculties as a general thing. One is obliged to seek out the weaknesses of the parties in power, and to play upon them. It commences very simply. A superintendent or committeeman, from the purest motives, believing it for the interest of the community, votes for a publisher's book; then the publisher, feeling kindly towards this person, makes him a present of some kind. It is not money, but some little token or other. It may go as far as a Webster's Dictionary or a set of encyclopædias. Ordinarily, however, it would not commence in that way. It is a dangerous beginning, although the committeeman himself may not feel that it is placing himself under special obligation to accept a gift, under the circumstances. But when this publisher's books come up again for adoption, or others come in competition with his, the danger is that this committeeman would feel more interest in this party's books than he possibly could in a stranger's. Not only from such gradual beginnings, but in many other ways, it happens that the agent of a publisher may secure a large number of persons specially interested in his books. If a committeeman is known to have strong friends in a city or town, the fact is found out, and these friends are interested one way or another to influence him. The same line of policy is pursued in regard to teachers. Those that have influence are sought out and cultivated, and their aid is secured in some way. If there is a lawyer upon the school board, the business of a firm requires legal talent oftentimes; there are collections to be made, or other affairs needing the help of a lawyer. If a physician is on the school board, the agent sometimes is taken sick suddenly. A case of this kind actually occurred a short time ago. Both father and son happened to be physicians. The agent went to the father for some slight ailment, and after he had passed out his five or ten dollars, and was just going away, he said to the physician, "Perhaps you may be interested to know that I am trying to introduce a certain line of books in this city." "Oh!" said the physician, "I am not the person whom you wish to see about books. It is my son, who is on the School Board!" Straightway the agent goes to the son and has another examination for the same trouble, and makes known his business. The matter, by accident, was spoken of between the father and son, and the joke was too good to be kept. Thus it came to be exposed.

From such beginnings the political line of work develops into serious difficulties, such as have recently cropped out in the States of Virginia, West Virginia, and Washington. In some of these cases heavy bribes have been given to secure votes. Where one case of bribery is exposed, it is generally believed that a hundred are successful. A large corporation has some representative in every important city or town in the country.

In addition to all the corrupt influences known to politics, there is this further danger: that a rich company will prevail upon a city or town, when it is dissatisfied with the books used, to take in exchange its new books, free of charge; and, appealing as this does to the spirit of gain in the city or town, they take the new books without particularly looking into the question to see whether there are not better published by other houses.

In a single year the new books become old and prove more unsatisfactory than the ones supplanted, but it is not so easy to make a second change. They are obliged to keep on with the old books for many years.

Any action of this kind that tends to sink out of sight the merit of a book and emphasize the one fact of pecuniary gain or price is fraught with great harm, for it lowers the business down to the lowest cost of printer's ink, paper, and binding. The unfortunate thing about this whole matter is that the formation of the American Book Company intensifies the political side of the question, as I have said before, by creating alarm in the public mind, which is sure to result in a large amount of special legislation. When the people decide to make their own books, as in the State of California, they find many difficulties. It costs a great deal of money to establish a first-class printing-office and bindery, and to make the plates for a series of books. It is difficult to secure the right kind of talent to make good books. In fact, publishers generally find that the whole United States is not too large a field to draw from for good editors, and when they have the whole country to select from, many series of books have to be issued before a successful one appears. Even the best books that are now in the schools have had to be made over many times before arriving at their present state of perfection. When a person selects the publishing business for his vocation, it is presumable that he has special talents fitting him for that line of work, and when he has to experiment on his own money, he is likely to take greater care to secure a satisfactory product.

If it is necessary for the successful publisher to have special ability for his work and the whole United States for his market, how much more uncertain and difficult must it be when a State goes into the business? Then a person is selected to manage the publishing business, not on account of any particular fitness he may have for the work, but because he has been useful to the party in a political way. The State has to go to the large expense of printing and binding, and the amount of work required is not sufficient to keep up a first-class establishment. The State is also limited largely to its own people for editorial work, and the party having the public money at his disposal is not, in the nature of things, as careful in the use of it as he would be with his own. Then it is found that in a few years the books have to be revised and new plates have to be made, even under the best conditions. Therefore it is not strange that the experiment in California was such a significant failure. They find that their books are not only inferior to those in the open market, but they have cost about twice as much. The California experiment has probably ended that line of State action.

There is a danger that the people themselves at first will help on the American Book Company by accepting the gift of new books for old ones, and thus assist to destroy their only means of protection,—free, open competition,—and they will not realize fully their own dangers until after they have themselves firmly established a gigantic monopoly.

I am very much afraid that it will be impossible now to save the country from going through this disastrous experiment. The American Book Company begins to realize something of the intense prejudice against large corporations, monopolies, and Trusts, and during the last year it would appear that it is trying to render this legislation as harmless as possible by tying up States and counties for a period of five years. This renewed activity in State legislation is having its legitimate effect in paring down profits. The cutting down of the margin of profit below the amount necessary to produce a first-class article, in any business, injures alike the trade and the community. The trades must be prosperous, or the community will suffer. If the people will discourage the elements at work unfavorable to the business, and will insist on having those books that have the greatest merit instead of the cheapest price, they may stop this lowering influence. When the public concludes to pay no more for school-books than the price of poor paper, poor ink, and poor binding, and nothing for brains in either editor or publisher, they will get just what they pay for. If they want to spend $150 a year to educate a child, and then lose one-half of that expenditure to save twenty-five or fifty cents a year on the school-books, it is about time that they should consider whether such a course is wise economy.

EDWIN GINN.

NOTE.—Reprinted from the *New York Evening Post* of June 6th, with slight verbal changes and omissions.

G. A. PLIMPTON. S. S. WHITE.
FRED B. GINN. O. P. CONANT.
JUSTIN H. SMITH. RALPH L. HAYES.
T. P. BALLARD. T. W. GILSON.
LEWIS PARKHURST. F. M. AMBROSE.
H. H. HILTON.

OF
SCHOOL AND COLLEGE TEXT-BOOKS.
BOSTON. NEW YORK. CHICAGO. LONDON.

7–13 Tremont Place, Boston, April 16, 1895.

Dictated by

briefly stated in the accompanying paper, to which we would ask your careful attention. We shall be glad to hear from you at any time in regard to the matters therein touched upon.

Very truly yours,

Ginn & Co

The
National
Educational
Association

Proceedings
of the
National
Council

Denver Meeting
1895

THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

FOURTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING

OF THE

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION

DENVER, COLO., 1895.

WITH THE

LIST OF MEMBERS, OFFICERS AND COMMITTEES
FOR THE YEAR 1895-96.

ST. PAUL:
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1896.

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NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION.

CONSTITUTION.

PREAMBLE.

The National Council of Education shall have for its object the consideration and discussion of educational questions of general interest and public importance, and the presentation, through printed reports, of the substance of the discussions, and the conclusions formulated. It shall be its object to reach and disseminate correct thinking on educational questions; and, for this purpose, it shall be the aim of the Council, in conducting its discussions, to define and state with accuracy the different views and theories on the subject under consideration, and, secondly, to discover and represent fairly the grounds and reasons for each theory or view, so far as to show, as completely as possible, the genesis of opinion on the subject. It shall be the duty of the Council, in pursuance of this object, to encourage from all its members the most careful statement of differences in opinion, together with the completest statement of grounds for the same. It shall further require from the chairmen of its committees the careful preservation and presentation of the individual differences of opinion whenever grounds have been furnished for the same by members of their committees. It shall invite the freest discussion of the reports of its committees, and, whenever said reports are not so amended as to embody the new suggestions developed by such discussion, any member making such suggestion or objection may put in writing his view and the grounds therefor. and furnish the same to the Secretary for the records of the Council. It shall prepare, through its President, with the aid of the chairmen of the several committees, an annual report to the National Association, setting forth the questions considered by the Council during the previous year, and placing before the association, in succinct form, the work accomplished. It shall embody in this report a survey of those educational topics which seem to call for any action on the part of the association. The Council shall appoint, out of its own number, committees representing the several departments of education, and thereby facilitate the exchange of opinion among its members on such special topics as demand the attention of the profession or of the public.

ARTICLE I.—MEMBERSHIP.

1. The National Council of Education shall consist of sixty members, selected [illegible] of the membership of the National Educational Association. Any member of [illegible]sociation identified with educational work is eligible to membership in the

Council, and after the first election such membership shall continue for six years, except as hereinafter provided.

2. In the year 1885 the Board of Directors shall elect eight members—four members for six years, two for four years, and two for two years; and the Council shall elect eight members—five members for six years, two for four years, and one for two years; and annually thereafter the Board of Directors shall elect five members and the Council five members, each member, with the exception hereinafter provided for (section 5), to serve six years, or until his successor is elected.

3. The annual election of members of the Council shall be held in connection with the annual meetings of the association. If the Board of Directors shall fail, for any reason, to fill its quota of members annually, the vacancy or vacancies shall be filled by the Council.

4. The term of service of the several members of the Council, chosen at the first election, shall be arranged by the Executive Committee of the Council.

5. The absence of a member from two consecutive annual meetings of the Council shall be considered equivalent to resignation of membership, and the Council shall fill vacancies caused by absence from the Council as herein defined, as well as vacancies caused by death or resignation, for the unexpired term. All persons who have belonged to the Council shall, on the expiration of their membership, become honorary members, with the privilege of attending its regular sessions, and participating in its discussions. No state shall be represented in the Council by more than eight members.

ARTICLE II.—FEES.

There shall be no fee for membership in the Council of Education, but each member of it shall secure a membership in the National Educational Association by becoming a life member of the same, or by paying to the Treasurer of the association the annual membership fee of two dollars.

ARTICLE III.—MEETINGS.

There shall be a regular annual meeting of the Council held at the same place as the meeting of the National Association, and at least two days previous to this meeting. There may be special meetings of the Council, subject to the call of the Executive Committee, but the attendance at these meetings shall be entirely voluntary. The regular meeting of the committees shall take place on the days provided for the annual meeting of the Council. Meetings of committees may be called at any time by the chairmen of the respective committees, but attendance at such special meetings shall be entirely voluntary. A majority of the Council shall constitute a quorum for the transaction of business at any meeting, whether regular or called; but any less number, exceeding eight members, may constitute a quorum for the transaction of business at the regular annual meeting, as defined in this article.

ARTICLE IV.—COMMITTEES.

The general management of the affairs of the Council shall be vested in an Executive Committee, composed of the President, Vice President, and Secretary of the Council, and four other members, all of whom are to be elected by the

Council at its annual meeting. There shall be twelve standing committees, each consisting of five members. They shall be appointed by the Executive Committee, and be named as follows:

1. Committee on State School Systems.
2. Committee on City School Systems.
3. Committee on Higher Education.
4. Committee on Secondary Education.
5. Committee on Elementary Education.
6. Committee on Normal Education.
7. Committee on Technological Education.
8. Committee on Pedagogics.
9. Committee on Moral Education.
10. Committee on School Sanitation, Hygiene, and Physical Training.
11. Committee on Psychological Inquiry.
12. Committee on Educational Reports and Statistics.

ARTICLE V.—DUTIES OF STANDING COMMITTEES.

The committees of the Council shall consider the topics assigned to them, and report on the same; they may select for their deliberations such other questions belonging to their departments as they deem proper to discuss.

Whenever called upon, the committees shall continue the deliberate work of the association on topics assigned to them, or prepare questions to be submitted to that body.

It shall be the duty of the standing committees to observe the new educational experiments and original investigations within the scope of their assigned topics, and report the same from time to time to the President of the Council.

ARTICLE VI.—DUTIES OF MEMBERS OF THE COMMITTEES.

The members of the Council shall render active service and assistance in the work of the committee to which they have been assigned, and further the general work of the Council as much as is in their power. They shall give their attention to the questions submitted to them, and communicate their conclusions in writing to the Chairman of the Committee.

Meeting of Committee for Special Work.—A half day at each annual session shall be set apart for "round table" discussions, and each standing committee may conduct its own meeting separately, inviting, at its pleasure, experts, original investigators, or other persons, to present their experience or theoretical views before it, for discussion.

ARTICLE VII.—DUTIES OF THE CHAIRMEN OF COMMITTEES.

The Chairman of each committee shall communicate the questions which are to be discussed to each of the members of his committee, and send them such other communications as may assist them in their work. He shall arrange a suitable plan for an exchange of opinion, and embody the conclusions arrived at in a brief report. He shall, from time to time, inform the Secretary of the Council of the progress made by his committee. He shall, with the consent of the other members of his committee, arrange special meetings at a convenient time and place. He shall see that the communications, sent in turn to each member of his committee, are promptly forwarded. He shall state distinctly (in the form of questions, when feasible) the topics on which he desires to have a brief expression of opinion from the members of his committee, and embody the substance of their answers in his report.

ARTICLE VIII.—THE WORK OF THE COMMITTEES.

The work of the committees of the Council shall be carried on in the regular meetings provided for above, and in such special meetings as can be arranged from time to time, according to the pleasure of the committee, and principally in writing, by an exchange of briefly-expressed opinions. It shall be the duty of each Chairman to devise a plan for the latter. Each member may be required to report on a part of the subject; or the whole topic may be submitted to each member, together with the opinion of the other members that have considered the topic before.

ARTICLE IX.—DUTIES OF THE COUNCIL.

It shall be the duty of the Council to further the objects of the National Association, and to use its best efforts to promote the cause of education in general. The Council shall assign work to each committee, and receive a report on the same; it shall cause to be published such reports of committees, or parts of the same, as in its judgment should be brought to general notice; it shall present, through the President of the Council, an annual report of its work to the National Educational Association.

Arrangement of Annual Program.—The President, in making up the annual program of exercises, may select any of the twelve standing committees which will, in his opinion, prepare work for the Council of the most timely and vital character, and he shall not be limited in his choice by considerations of routine.

The committee thus reporting may introduce before the Council such specialists, experts, original investigators, or inventors of new methods as they may deem essential to present effectively their subject-matter before the Council for discussion.

ARTICLE X.—AMENDMENTS.

This constitution may be altered or amended, at a regular meeting of the Council, by a two-thirds vote of the members present, and any provision may be waived at any regular meeting by unanimous consent.

By-laws not in violation of this constitution may be adopted by a two-thirds vote of the Council.

OFFICERS FOR 1894-95.

President.—C. C. Rounds, Plymouth, N. H.
Vice President.—E. Oram Lyte, Millersville, Pa.
Secretary and Treasurer.—N. C. Dougherty, Peoria, Ill.

Executive Committee.—The President, Vice President, Secretary; E. W. Coy, Cincinnati, Ohio; Charles W. Eliot, Cambridge, Mass.; B. A. Hinsdale, Ann Arbor, Mich.; James H. Canfield, Lincoln, Neb.

OFFICERS FOR 1895-96.

President.—H. S. Tarbell, Providence, R. I.
Vice President.—Earl Barnes, Stanford University, Cal.
Secretary and Treasurer.—Bettie A. Dutton, Cleveland, Ohio.

Executive Committee.—The President, Vice President, Secretary; Charles De Garmo, Swarthmore, Pa.; D. L. Kiehle, Minneapolis, Minn.; J. R. Preston, Jackson, Miss.; James M. Green, Trenton, N. J.

MEMBERS.

Note.—The letter "A" following a name denotes that the member is of the class elected by the association; the letter "C," by the Council.

		Term expires.
Edwin C. Hewett, Normal, Ill.	A	1896
Andrew J. Rickoff, Berkeley, Cal.	A	1896
*Euler B. Smith, Athens, Ga.	A	1896
*Chas. A. McMurry, Normal, Ill.	A	1896
*J. F. Millspaugh, Salt Lake City, Utah.	A	1896
*John T. Buchanan, Kansas City, Mo.	C	1896
*H. S. Tarbell, Providence, R. I.	C	1896
*E. W. Coy, Cincinnati, Ohio	C	1896
*Ellen C. Sabin, Milwaukee, Wis.	C	1896
*John W. Cook, Normal, Ill.	C	1896
William T Harris, Washington, D. C.	A	1897
*C. B. Gilbert, St. Paul, Minn.	A	1897
John E. Bradley, Jacksonville, Ill.	A	1897
*Earl Barnes, Stanford Univ., Cal.	A	1897
J. G. Schurman, Ithaca, N. Y.	A	1897
*Charles De Garmo, Swarthmore, Pa.	C	1897
*L. H. Jones, Cleveland, Ohio	C	1897
C. M Woodward, St Louis, Mo.	C	1897
*S. G. Williams, Ithaca, N. Y.	C	1897
*Nicholas Murray Butler, New York.	C	1897
Richard G. Boone, Ypsilanti, Mich.	A	1898
*F. Louis Soldan, St. Louis, Mo.	A	1898
N. A. Calkins, New York City	A	1898
*Joseph Baldwin, Huntsville, Tex.	A	1898
James H Canfield, Columbus, Ohio	A	1898
A. S. Draper, Champaign, Ill.	C	1898
*William H. Maxwell, Brooklyn, N. Y.	C	1898
Emerson E. White, Columbus, Ohio.	C	1898
*B. A. Hinsdale, Ann Arbor, Mich.	C	1898
*N. C. Dougherty, Peoria, Ill.	C	1898
*W. H. Bartholomew, Louisville, Ky.	A	1899
*Frank A. Fitzpatrick, Boston, Mass.	A	1899
*Henry Sabin, Des Moines, Iowa	A	1899
*E. Oram Lyte, Millersville, Pa.	A	1899
J. M. Greenwood, Kansas City, Mo.	A	1899
William A. Mowry, Salem, Mass.	C	1899
Selim H. Peabody, Chicago, Ill.	C	1899
*Nathan C Schaeffer, Harrisburg, Pa.	C	1899
*David L. Kiehle, St. Paul, Minn.	C	1899
*Mary E. Nicholson, Indianapolis, Ind	C	1899
*C. C. Rounds, Plymouth, N. H.	A	1900
*J. H. Phillips, Birmingham, Ala.	A	1900
*Z. Richards, Washington, D. C.	A	1900
*James H. Baker, Boulder, Colo.	A	1900
*Thomas G. Harris, Austin, Tex.	A	1900
*Aaron Gove, Denver, Colo.	C	1900
Wm. E. Sheldon, Boston, Mass.	C	1900
*Irwin Shepard, Winona, Minn.	C	1900
Lucia Stickney, Cincinnati, Ohio.	C	1900
*H. H. Seerley, Cedar Falls, Iowa	C	1900
*James M. Green, Trenton, N. J.	A	1901
*Augustus S. Downing, Albany, N. Y.	A	1901
*A. R. Taylor, Emporia, Kan.	A	1901
*W. H. Payne, Nashville, Tenn.	A	1901
*J. R. Preston, Jackson, Miss.	A	1901
*Geo P. Brown, Bloomington, Ill.	C	1901
*Bettie A. Dutton, Cleveland, Ohio.	C	1901
*Chas. H. Keyes, Pasadena, Cal.	C	1901
*Wm. L. Bryan, Bloomington, Ind.	C	1901
*Wm. F. King, Mt. Vernon, Iowa	C	1901

**Present at the meeting of the Council in Denver, 1895.*

HONORARY MEMBERS.

Henry Barnard, Hartford, Conn.
William N. Barringer, Newark, N. J.
Newton Bateman, Galesburg, Ill.
D. Bemis, Spokane, Wash.
Thomas W. Bicknell, Providence, R. I.
Albert C. Boyden, Bridgewater, Mass.
Anna C. Brackett, New York City.
Edward Brooks, Philadelphia, Pa.
Matthew H. Buckham, Burlington, Vt.
David M. Camp, New Britain, Conn.
Aaron L. Chapin, Beloit, Wis.
Clara Conway, Memphis, Tenn.
Matilda S. Cooper, Nyack, N. Y.
Oscar H. Cooper, Galveston, Tex.
William J. Corthell, Gorham, Me.
J. L. M. Curry, Richmond, Va.
V. C. Dibble, Charleston, S. C.
John W. Dickinson, Boston, Mass.
Larkin Dunton, Boston, Mass.
John Eaton, Washington, D. C.
Chas. W. Eliot, Cambridge, Mass.
Geo. T. Fairchild, Manhattan, Kan.
William W. Folwell, Minneapolis, Minn.
W. R. Garrett. Nashville, Tenn.
Daniel C. Gilman, Baltimore, Md.
James C. Greenough, Westfield, Mass.
John M. Gregory, Washington, D. C.
Daniel B. Hagar, Salem, Mass.
W. N. Hailman, Washington, D. C.
G. Stanley Hall, Worcester, Mass.
Ira G. Hoitt, Sacramento, Cal.
J. George Hodgins, Toronto, Canada.
James H. Hoose. Pasadena, Cal.
George W. Howison, San Francisco, Cal.
James L. Hughes, Toronto, Canada.
Thomas Hunter, New York City.
Ellen Hyde, Farmingham, Mass.
John S. Irwin, Fort Wayne, Ind.
E. J. James, Philadelphia, Pa.
Henry M. James, Tacoma, Wash.
H. S. Jones, Lincoln, Neb.
E. S. Joynes, Knoxville, Tenn.
Thomas Kirkland, Toronto, Canada.
Henry M. Leipziger, New York City.
James MacAlister. Philadelphia, Pa.
Albert P. Marble, Omaha, Neb.
Francis A. Marsh, Easton, Pa.
Lillie J. Martin, San Francisco, Cal.
Thomas J. Morgan, Washington, D. C.
Lemuel Moss, Minneapolis, Minn.
Birdseye G. Northrop, Clinton, Conn.
John M. Ordway, New Orleans, La.
Francis W. Parker, Chicago, Ill.
Warren D. Parker, River Falls, Wis.
S. S. Parr, St. Cloud, Minn.
John B. Peaslee, Cincinnati, Ohio.
William F. Phelps, St. Paul, Minn.
Josiah L. Pickard, Iowa City, Iowa.
John T. Prince, Boston, Mass.
William H. Ruffner, Lexington, Va.
H. E. Shepard, Charleston, S. C.
Edgar A. Singer, Philadelphia, Pa.
James H. Smart, Lafayette, Ind.
Homer B. Sprague............Cal.
J. W. Stearns, Madison, Wis.
Thomas B. Stockwell, Providence, R. I.
Grace Bibb Sudborough, Omaha, Neb.
John Swett, San Francisco, Cal.
W. R. Thigpen, Savannah, Ga.
H. S. Thompson, Columbia, S. C.
L. S. Thompson, New Wilmington, Pa.
Julia S. Tutweiler, Livingstone, Ala.
Della L. Williams, Delaware, Ohio.
J. Ormond Wilson, Washington, D. C.
H. K. Wolfe, Lincoln, Neb.

DECEASED MEMBERS.

Robert Allyn	1894
Israel W. Andrews	1888
N. R. H. Dawson	1895
Samuel S. Greene	1883
John Hancock	1891
William D. Henkle	1882
Elnathan E. Higbee	1889
George Howland	1892
Merrick Lyon	1888
James McCosh	1894
M. A. Newell	1893
Edward Olney	1886
Gustavus J. Orr	1888
John D. Philbrick	1885
R. W. Stevenson	1893
Eli T. Tappan	1888
Charles O. Thompson	1885
James P. Wickersham	1891

STANDING COMMITTEES.

The committees from which reports are due in 1896 are Nos. II., III., IV., VII., X., XI., and XII. The topics already reported on will be found in italics, with the years of the reports in parentheses.

The chairman of each of the standing committees should communicate with the other members of his committee at once, select a subject, and notify the President, H. S. Tarbell, Providence, R. I., by Feb. 1, 1896. It is the wish of the President of the National Educational Association that the programs of the National Association, its departments, and the National Council, be issued by February 15th.

Attention is called to provisions of the constitution of the Council in regard to the character of the work of standing committees. Provision is also made in the constitution for round tables, and it is expected that arrangements will be made for these by those standing committees to which formal reports are not assigned.

I.—On State School Systems.

SUB-TOPICS.

1. *Organization* (1883).
2. *Supervision* (1885).
3. *Licensure of Teachers* (1889).
4. School Revenues.
5. *Compulsory Education* (1891).
6. *Tenure of Office of Teachers* (1887).
7. Supplying the Schools with Text Books.
8. *State, County, City, and District Supervision* (1892).
9. *The Ungraded School* (1895).

N. C. Schaeffer, Harrisburg, Pa., *Chairman*
J. H. Canfield, Columbus, Ohio.
J. R. Preston, Jackson, Miss.
J. G. Schurman, Ithaca, N. Y.
Henry Sabin, Des Moines, Iowa.

II.—On City School Systems.

SUB-TOPICS.

1. Organization.
2. *Supervision* (1884, 1890).
3. Superintendency.
4. Qualification of Teachers.
5. *Classification of Pupils* (1886).
6. Ungraded Schools.
7. *Business Side of City School Systems* (1888, 1889, 1890).
8. Promotions and Examinations.
9. Evening Schools.
10. Enriching the Course of Study below the High School.
11. *Graded Course of Study on Herbartian Principles* (1895).

Aaron Gove, Denver, Colo., *Chairman.*
L. H. Jones, Cleveland, Ohio.
Ellen C. Sabin, Milwaukee, Wis.
Oscar H. Cooper, Galveston, Tex.
N. C. Dougherty, Peoria, Ill.

III.—On Higher Education.

SUB-TOPICS.

1. *Higher Institutions Required* (1885).
2. *Harmonizing of Higher, Secondary, and Elementary Schools* (1882).
3. *Admission to College* (1884).
4. *Elective System* (1888).
5. College Government.
6. What Should Precede the University?
7. The Seminary Method of Instruction.
8. *Professional and Technical Instruction in the University* (1894).

J. E. Bradley, Jacksonville, Ill., *Chairman.*
William F. King, Mount Vernon, Iowa.
James H. Baker, Boulder, Colo.
A. S. Draper, Champaign, Ill.
S. G. Williams, Ithaca, N. Y.

IV.—On Secondary Education.

Sub-Topics.

1. *High Schools* (1882).
2. *Academies* (1885).
3. *Preparation for College* (1884).
4. *Relation of High Schools to Colleges*(1887).
5. *Opportunities of the Rural Population for Secondary Education* (1889).
6. Schools by Correspondence.
7. *Uniformity in Requirements for Admission to College* (1891).
8. Difference Between College Methods of Instruction and High School Methods.

W. H. Bartholomew, Louisville, Ky.
F. Louis Soldan, St. Louis, Mo.
H. H. Seerley, Cedar Falls, Iowa.
John T. Buchanan, Kansas City, Mo.
Horace S. Tarbell, Providence, R. I.

V.—On Elementary Education.

Sub-Topics.

1. *Course of Study* (1882).
2. *Oral Teaching* (1884).
3. *Text-Books* (1886).
4. *Waste in Elementary Education* (1888).
5. Kindergarten.
6. Language Lessons in Elementary Schools.
7. Science Teaching in Lower Grades.
8. *Essentials in Elementary Education* (1890).
9. *The Uses of Literature in Elementary Education* (1892).
10. *Economy in Elementary Education* (1895).

Geo. P. Brown, Bloomington, Ill., *Chairman.*
William E. Sheldon, Boston, Mass.
Zalmon Richards, Washington, D. C.
J. H. Phillips, Birmingham, Ala.
Bettie A. Dutton, Cleveland, Ohio.

VI.—On Normal Education.

Sub-Topics.

1. Kind of Normal Schools Required.
2. *Academical and Professional Training* (1883, 1889).
3. *Practice Departments* (1885).
4. *City Normal Schools* (1891).
5. *Teachers' Institutes* (1887).
6. *The Relation of the Normal School to Other Institutions of Learning* (1892).
7. Normal School Extension.
8. *The Kind and Amount of Practice-Work and Its Place in the Normal School Course* (1895).

R. G. Boone, Ypsilanti, Mich., *Chairman.*
Irwin Shepard, Winona, Minn.
James M. Green, Trenton, N. J.
William L. Bryan, Bloomington, Ill.
John W. Cook, Normal, Ill.

VII.—On Technological Education.

Sub-Topics.

1. *Technical Training in Public Schools* (1881)
2. Preparation for Institutes of Technology.
3. *Pedagogical Value of the School Workshop* (1886).
4. *Agricultural Colleges* (1888).
5. Summer Schools of Science.
6. *Relation of Technological to Liberal Education* (1894).

C. M. Woodward, St. Louis, Mo., *Chairman.*
Selim H. Peabody, Chicago, Ill.
Euler B. Smith, Athens, Ga.
William H. Payne, Nashville, Tenn.
Charles H. Keyes, Pasadena, Cal.

VIII.—On Pedagogics.

SUB-TOPICS.

1. *Chair of Pedagogy in Colleges* (1882).
2. *Pedagogy as a Science* (1884).
3. Pedagogical Inquiry.
4. *Function of Public Schools* (1886, 1887).
5. *Educational Value of Manual Training* (1889).
6. Moral Education.
7. Pedagogical Terminology.
8. *The Education of the Will* (1891).
9. Distinguishing Ideas in the Herbartian System of Pedagogy.
10. *Scope and Character of the Pedagogical Work in Universities* (1892).
11. *The Laws of Mental Congruence and Energy Applied to Some Pedagogical Problems* (1895).

Nicholas Murray Butler, New York City. *Chairman.*
David L. Kiehle, Minneapolis, Minn.
A. R. Taylor, Emporia, Kan.
Charles A. McMurry, Normal, Ill.
B. A. Hinsdale, Ann Arbor, Mich.

IX.—On Moral Education.

[Changed from—"*On the Education of Girls,*" 1891.]

SUB-TOPICS.

1. *Co-education* (1883, 1890).
2. *Technical Training for Girls* (1886).
3. *What Education is Best* (1888).
4. *The Education of Girls* (1891).
5. *Practical Culture of the Moral Virtues* (1892).
6. Direct and Indirect Moral Teaching.
7. *Moral Instruction in the Elementary Schools* (1895).

Emerson E. White, Columbus, O., *Chairman.*
Charles De Garmo, Swarthmore, Pa.
Lucia Stickney, Cincinnati, Ohio.
Charles C. Rounds, Plymouth, N. H.
J. F. Millspaugh, Salt Lake City, Utah.

X.—On School Sanitation, Hygiene, and Physical Training.

[Changed from—"*On Hygiene in Education,*" 1891.]

SUB-TOPICS.

1. *Sanitary Exercises and Appliances in Public Schools* (1883).
2. *Recesses* (1884, 1885).
3. *Relation of Mental Labor to Physical Health* (1887).
4. *Harmonious Development* (1889).
5. *Physical Education* (1891).

William A. Mowry, Hyde Park, Mass., *Chairman.*
Mary E. Nicholson, Indianapolis, Ind.
Joseph Baldwin, Austin, Tex.
F. A. Fitzpatrick, Boston, Mass.
C. B. Gilbert, St. Paul, Minn.

XI.—On Psychological Inquiry.

[Changed from—"*On Educational Literature,*" 1891.]

SUB-TOPICS.

1. *School Reports* (1885).
2. *Books on Pedagogy* (1888).
3. *Use of General Libraries* (1887).
4. *Educational Literature* (1890).
5. *Relation of Mnemonic Systems to the Cultivation of the Power of Thought* (1892).
6. *The Psychology of the Imitative Functions in Childhood* (1894).

E. O. Lyte, Millersville, Pa., *Chairman.*
William T. Harris, Washington, D. C.
N. A. Calkins, New York City.
Edwin C. Hewett, Normal, Ill.
Earl Barnes, Stanford University, Cal.

XII.—On Educational Reports and Statistics.

[Changed from—"*On Educational Statistics,*" 1891.]

SUB-TOPICS.

1. *Reforms in Statistics* (1885, 1887).
2. *What Statistics Should be Collected* (1889, 1891).

illiam H. Maxwell, Brooklyn, N. Y., *airman.*
J. M. Greenwood, Kansas City, Mo.
E. W. Coy, Cincinnati, Ohio.
A. J. Rickoff, Berkeley, Cal.
H. K. Wolfe, Lincoln, Neb.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES.

FIRST DAY.

OPENING SESSION.

DENVER, COLO., FRIDAY, July 5, 1895.

The Council was called to order at 10 a. m., in the supreme court room, state capitol, with President C. C. Rounds in the chair.

Prayer was offered by D. L. Kiehle.

In the absence of E. E. White of Ohio, the report of the Committee on "Moral Instruction in the Elementary Schools" was not presented, but was taken up for discussion.

Earl Barnes of Leland Stanford University opened the discussion, and was followed by C. C. Rounds, J. Baldwin, D. L. Kiehle, Henry Sabin, J. W. Cook, F. L. Soldan, and J. H. Baker.

The discussion was reported by James H. Baker.

Adjourned until 2:30 p. m.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

Council opened its session at 2:30 p. m.

The Committee on Elementary Education made a report on "Economy in Elementary Education," the report being made by Miss Bettie A. Dutton of Cleveland, Ohio, Chairman of the committee.

The report was discussed by Messrs. Brown, Richards, Soldan, Cook, and Marble.

The discussion was reported by W. F. King.

It was voted that the report be received and printed.

On motion of George P. Brown, the officers of the Council were authorized to bring the report before the Council at a subsequent meeting for further discussion.

SECOND DAY.

MORNING SESSION.—SATURDAY, JULY 6TH.

Council met at 10 a. m. Prayer was offered by Joseph Baldwin.

The report of the discussion on "Moral Instruction in the Elementary Schools" was presented by James H. Baker.

Approved and ordered printed.

The Council then resumed the discussion on "Economy in Elementary Education."

The discussion was opened by Mr. Baker, and continued by Messrs. Gilbert, Cook, and Richards.

Report of the Committee on State School Systems was submitted by its Chairman, Henry Sabin, The topic of investigation was "The Ungraded School."

Report was discussed by Messrs. Cook, Kiehle, Hinsdale, Brown, Rounds, Baldwin, Prince, Boyden, and Barnes.

The discussion was reported by Geo. P. Brown.

Report was ordered printed.

On motion of B. A. Hinsdale, the chair was directed to appoint a committee of five, who should submit a plan for further investigation of this subject.

Adjourned.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

The Council was called to order promptly at 2:30, with President Rounds in the chair.

The following committees were announced.

Committee on New Members.—H. S. Tarbell, Mary E. Nicholson, James H. Baker, Earl Barnes, and Z. Richards.

Committee on Nominations —F. Louis Soldan, C. B. Gilbert, L. H. Jones.

The Council then organized as a Round Table on City School Systems, with N. C. Dougherty as Chairman. Subject: "Graded Courses of Study on Herbartian Principles."

The discussion was led by Charles A. McMurray, who was followed by Messrs. Brown, Cook, Baker, and Soldan.

The Council adjourned.

THIRD DAY.

MORNING SESSION.—MONDAY, JULY 8TH.

Council met at ten o'clock. Prayer was offered by N. C. Schaeffer.

The President announced as the committee to report on "Ungraded Schools," Messrs. Hinsdale, Kiehle, Preston, Brown, and Barnes.

The Committee on Pedagogics submitted its report on the "Laws of Congruity and Mental Energy Applied to Some Pedagogical Problems," through the Chairman, B. A. Hinsdale.

The report was discussed by Geo. P. Brown, J. Baldwin, F. Louis Soldan, *James H. Baker*, and L. H. Jones.

The President announced that the afternoon session would be held in the assembly hall of the Denver High School.

Council adjourned.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

Council assembled promptly at 2:30 p. m.

The report of the Committee on Normal Education was presented by its Chairman, John W. Cook. Subject: "The Kind and Amount of Practice Work and Its Place in the Normal School Course."

The report was discussed by Messrs. Brown, Williams, Schaeffer, Barnes, Miss Nicholson, and Mrs. Sudborough.

William F. King offered the following resolutions, which were unanimously adopted:

Whereas, A reception was tendered by the Fortnightly Club of Denver to the Council of Education, on the evening of the 6th, at the residence of Bishop and Mrs. Henry W. Warren, at University Park; and,

Whereas, The pleasant ride, the beautiful and inspiring scenery, the perfect weather, the meeting of genial acquaintances, new and old, and the generous hospitalities of this model home, where wealth and Christian culture are so happily blended, combined to make this the social event of our delightful stay in Denver; therefore

Resolved, That we most heartily thank the Fortnightly Club and Bishop and Mrs. Warren for this very pleasant occasion, so liberally planned and so successfully executed.

Resolved further, That copies of these resolutions be sent to the Fortnightly Club, and also to Bishop and Mrs. Warren.

The President announced that the morning session would be an executive session, and the Council would meet in the supreme court room of the capitol.

Council adjourned.

FOURTH DAY.

MORNING SESSION.—TUESDAY, JULY 9TH

The Council met in executive session, at 10 a. m., with President Rounds in the chair.

On motion of F. L. Soldan, it was resolved that the reports of the committees hereafter to be submitted to this Council be published one month before its meeting, and a copy of each mailed to each member of the Council.

On motion of C. B. Gilbert, it was resolved that hereafter admission to the Council to other than members be by card, issued under the direction of the Executive Committee.

On motion of N. C. Dougherty, the General Secretary of the association was requested hereafter to secure railroad rates for the members of the Council and their families, in time to attend the opening session of the Council.

The committee appointed to report a plan for further investigation of state school systems made the following report:

Resolved, That there be undertaken under the auspices of the Council an investigation of the subject of "Rural Schools," embracing such topics as revenues and expenditures, the constitution, organization, and duties of boards of management and control, and the provision of suitable teachers. More definitely, said investigation shall be conducted in general on the lines laid down in the report of the Committee on State School Systems, submitted to the Council at its present session.

Resolved **That a committee of nine be appointed to conduct this investigation, said committee to consist of the following persons: Henry Sabin of Iowa, D. L. Kiehle of Minnesota, A. B. Poland of New Jersey, C. C. Rounds of New Hampshire, J. H. Phillips of Alabama, B. A. Hinsdale of Michigan, S. T. Black of California, F. Sutton of Texas, and L. E. Wolfe of Missouri.**

Resolved, **That the Board of Directors of the National Educational Association be urgently requested to appropriate, at some session to be held during the course of the present annual meeting, the sum of $2,500, or such part thereof as may be necessary to defray the expenses of this investigation, including the publication of the report of the committee.**

Resolved, **That the committee shall report within the period of two years in such form as it may determine, and that it be authorized to publish its report.**

Respectfully submitted,
B. A. HINSDALE, *Chairman*.

On motion of Henry Sabin of Iowa, the committee were authorized to increase their number to twelve,

On motion of B. A. Hinsdale, it was resolved that this committee be empowered and instructed to fill any vacancy that may occur in its membership, and it was further resolved that the President of the National Educational Association, the President of the Council, and the Chairman of the committee be appointed a committee to carry the request of the Council to the Board of Directors, and to urge its adoption.

The committee on nominations of members of the Council recommended the following persons for election to the places and terms mentioned:

Geo. P. Brown (to succeed himself)	1901
Miss Bettie A. Dutton (to succeed herself)	1901
William F. King (to succeed himself)	1901
Charles H. Keyes (to succeed Henry M. James)	1901
William L. Bryan (to succeed Delia L. Williams)	1901
John Buchanan (to succeed John W. Dickinson)	1896

On motion of H. S. Tarbell, the recommendation of the committee was concurred in.

The Committee on Nominations submitted the following names:

President—H. S. Tarbell of Providence, R. I.

Vice President—Earl Barnes, Stanford University, Cal.

Secretary and Treasurer—Bettie A. Dutton, Cleveland, Ohio.

Executive Committee—Charles De Garmo, Swarthmore, Pa.; D. L. Kiehle, Minneapolis, Minn.; J. R. Preston, Jackson, Minn.; James M. Green, Trenton, N. J.

On motion of F. L. Soldan, the Secretary was directed to cast the ballot of Council for the persons named.

The President appointed J. H. Phillips to conduct the President-elect to the chair.

President Tarbell returned thanks for the honor conferred upon him, and the Council adjourned.

RECORD OF MEMBERSHIP.

The following were present at one or more of the sessions of 1895:

Baker, Baldwin, Barnes, Bartholomew, Brown, Bryan, Buchanan, Butler, Cook, Coy, De Garmo, Dougherty, Downing, Dutton, Fitzpatrick, Gilbert, Gove, Green, Harris (Texas), Hinsdale, Jones, Keyes, Kiehle, King, Lyte, Maxwell, McMurry, Millspaugh, Nicholson, Payne, Phillips, Preston, Richards, Rounds, Sabin *(Wisconsin)*, Sabin (Iowa), Schaeffer, Seerley, Shepard, Smith, Soldan, Tarbell, *Taylor*, *Williams*.

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS.

MORAL INSTRUCTION IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

DISCUSSION.

[REPORTED BY JAMES H. BAKER.]

MR. BARNES.—For many centuries it has been considered that conduct depended on religious instruction. Owing to the jealousies of sects our own country and France have been obliged to put religious instruction out of the schools. England is to-day on the verge of secularization. Nowhere has secularization of the schools been desired by the majority of thoughtful citizens—it is an undesired but unavoidable compromise.

As a consequence of secularization, children are growing up in ignorance of the fundamental ideas of the Christian theology. An examination of 1,200 compositions written by California children on heaven and hell shows that many of them think Christ was God's father, and many have not even heard of Mary or Moses. This makes it impossible for them to understand the spirit of our civilization, or the art, literature, and history of Christendom. Worse still, secularization is leaving in children's minds a feeling, that, when they have detected the invariable antecedent of a phenomenon, they have seen its ultimate cause. This makes life barren and weak.

But secularization is here and it must be respected. It takes from us the foundations on which moral training has rested in the past. Can we create a new basis for moral action through the love of birds and flowers, through admiration of Abraham Lincoln, or appreciation of Longfellow's poems, and if so, how? This is the question that confronts this Council.

MR. BALDWIN.—Conduct is the educational superlative. Educators are coming to think of school work as embracing five groups of studies blended into unity: Conduct studies, language studies, mathematics studies, science studies, art studies. The conduct group easily takes the first place. This group includes conduct lessons, school government, history, citizenship, mind lessons, religion. History, teaching the best lessons of individual and national experience, is central. These studies have the highest educational value. They awaken and develop the largest brain areas. They have the greatest culture as well as the greatest practical value. They give meaning and unity to the entire school work. Educators are first of all conduct teachers. The teacher makes even more thorough preparation for conduct lessons than for other lessons. In the near future the principals of our grammar schools and of our high schools will doubtless be conduct specialists. Thus, our ablest teachers, during the eight formative years, will give their best efforts to fostering character growth. The outlook is encouraging. Warm-hearted teachers are learning the art of developing into character the best possibilities of their pupils. In co-operation with parents and the church and society, our schools are coming more and more to stand for the fostering of good conduct.

Mr. Rounds.—For a few years past I have studied with much interest an experiment in moral instruction in a system of schools in a village community in New England. Convinced of the necessity for more systematic work in this direction, the subject of moral instruction was given a definite place in the course of study and in the time-table. The results were in some respects a surprise. Difficulties anticipated did not appear. It became at once one of the pleasantest subjects both to teacher and pupil, and there is no question of its value. Some remarkable instances might be given of the benefits derived from it in individual cases, and in general there has resulted a better understanding of the pupil by the teacher and a tenderer sympathy between them. The general atmosphere of the school has apparently been modified essentially by this instruction.

The course has been graded according to the gradually developing moral perception of the pupil. The instruction has been intuitional in a sense closely analogous to the usual object-lesson of the elementary school. This instruction is based upon spiritual perception as that is based upon sense perception, and it cannot be dogmatic in any sense. It is proved that lessons to a class cannot safely be drawn from personal experiences of the pupil, nor can individual personal applications safely be made before the class, for reasons which soon become obvious. The experiences drawn upon must be such as are analogous to the child's own experience or observation, and he must be left to make the personal application himself.

If literature, history, incidents from life, are treated from the point of view of right and wrong, there will always be at hand an abundance of material.

Whatever may be the degree of truth in the statement that the child cannot reason—and I believe there is very little truth in it—it is unquestionably true that the moral judgment is very early in exercise, and that correct inference in regard to right and wrong is one of the earliest forms of inference. Moral instruction, to be effective, must appeal to the feeling of the pupil. The moral lesson is the earliest revelation to the child of the spiritual world and its laws.

In the upper grammar grades the lessons are in morals and civics combined These lessons have shown that very few of even the more intelligent pupils have been led to think of the application of ethical principles to questions of public policy. I believe, that, if American politics is to be redeemed from the reproach that rests upon it, the salvation is to come, not from this generation so much as from the next, which is now in training in the schools.

It is a great misfortune that the Bible cannot be more widely used as a basis of instruction in the schools. The community to which I refer is almost entirely a Protestant community. There is very little appearance of denominational differences in social relations; yet there is a degree of denominational feeling such as would render it very unwise to give a course in biblical instruction in the public school. Yet a judicious teacher can, in this community, sum up moral teaching in statements carefully selected from the Bible, and some teachers have said that their most effective instruction is that which is summed up in maxims, biblical and other, embodying, in the best form, fundamental moral truth.

Mr. Barnes.—Do you not find that children are natural liars, communists, and anarchists?

Mr. Rounds.—That has not been my experience.

Mrs. Sudborough.—Will Mr. Barnes tell us whether it is true, as is sometimse said, that the religious instruction in the German schools is one of the causes of German infidelity

Mr. Barnes.—I cannot answer the question.

Mr. Rounds.—A friend of mine, who spent some time in the study of German schools, tells me that he found the religious teaching generally formal and lifeless, or the teachers whom he questioned upon the subject said the lessons were given merely because the law required this, but that they themselves did not approve of the religious instruction in schoools.

Mr. Kiehle.—In the progress of Christianity leading emphasis was given first to government and forms of worship; then, in Protestantism, to theological expression of belief, which caused the intellectual dogmatic element to be given the first place in religious teaching. In recent times, the spirit of Christianity in heart-life and character is receiving prominent attention, and is recognized by church and state in common as of fundamental value in the teaching of children. Hence, all character, including that of Jesus of Nazareth, all record of life and history, including the Bible, are properly recognized by state and church as material for lessons in moral and religious spirit.

Mr. Richards.—If we could have properly qualified teachers in morals we should not find it so necessary to discuss this important subject of moral instruction. The difficulties all arise from the imperfect qualification of our teachers.

To train children to correct moral conduct in life, the teacher must be an exemplar of the moral principles which he wishes to inculcate.

This qualification consists, first, in the teacher's knowledge of what moral sentiments should be taught; and, second, in knowing how to teach, or inculcate, these principles; and, third, in practically exemplifying these principles. These qualifications ought to be thoroughly and practically secured in our normal schools. No teacher should ever be graduated from our normal schools who has not been properly trained to do this work.

The Bible is the basis of all moral principles, but it is not absolutely necessary to use the Bible in teaching morals.

Mr. Sabin.—I have heard it said in the Council that children are liars, communists, and anarchists. I regret that anyone should hold such sentiments, and for myself, I would allow no primary teacher to enter a schoolroom who believed such things.

Mr. Barnes.—I have only raised the question whether a child was a liar in truth, a communist in property, and an anarchist in general philosophy. Further I raised the question as to how far we ourselves have settled the primary questions of society, religion, and property. I urge that our problem must consist in clarifying our own minds; then, in finding where the children actually are in moral ideas; and, then, in leading them through all the work of the day to the best we know.

Mr. Cook.—I dissent from the idea that what ordinarily passes for religious instruction is necessarily of much value as an ethical force in the school, and I press the necessity of setting up as the fundamental purpose of the school the formation of the moral will. To this end, there should be no isolation of moral instruction; but every exercise is valuable to the degree that it makes for wholesome conduct.

Mr. Sabin.—Professor Cook gets nearer right the longer he talks. No school taught in the spirit which he emphasizes can be said to be a secularized school. I have seen a school in which the teacher was careful to read the Bible and to have the opening prayer, and yet that school was the most highly secularized school I ever saw. The spirit of Christianity was entirely wanting. I know a teacher who received this acknowledgment from a young man who years before had been one of her pupils. He said that something she said to them one day turned the whole course of his life, and that he had come out of his way to thank her for it. That teacher did not read the Bible to her pupils, but her heart was as an open book, known and read by them every day.

There is one other side to this question. I am afraid the younger teachers are in danger of gaining wrong ideas from this discussion. The philosopher who goes about with his note-book taking down the simple and amusing answers which children make to his philosophical queries may be doing good in one direction, as adding useful information in child study; but he is doing harm in another direction, because these answers are often misleading. How many men and women there are who owe their success to personal influence of some teacher!

Mr. Soldan.—"Can morals be taught?" is an interesting although not a new question. No one will deny that intelligence influences action; that to know what is right and wrong is the very condition of moral action. But the real trouble that moral instruction seeks to meet lies not merely within but largely without the possibilities of intellectual training. Reference was made this morning to the fault of lying and cheating of which childhood is so often guilty. The cause of this is certainty not that the child does not know that it is wrong to lie and right to tell the truth. But the trouble is, that, knowing what is right, the perverse soul persists in the wrong. The preaching of virtue does not with any certainty lead to its practice.

Lessons in morals must be largely a matter of practice and action. When school education takes charge of the child his ethical character has already been formed in its outlines, and the example and personality of the father and mother have taught him practical lessons in morality or the opposite, which the school training may deepen or modify, but which it will hardly succeed in eradicating. No matter how the teacher will present the beauty of truth-telling to the intellect of the child, the example of the parent at home will be more powerful.

And yet, school instruction is not without means of influencing a child morally, even if no special lesson be set apart for this purpose. Every reading lesson in which a noble action is held up to admiration or an evil action to disapproval and censure, influences the child's moral attitude. In every history lesson in which the child looks upon the heroes of his country, not only as great Americans but as humanely great beings of which the world feels proud, his admiration becomes the first step in his forming the wish to be like them in their public and private virtues.

Mr. Baker.—That a system of public education is a necessity most people agree. It is also agreed that certain instruction which can be done by the various churches and in the homes cannot be introduced as a part of a public school curriculum, since there could be no agreement as to the exact character of that instruction. The education of the future is to be public education; and I hope that we shall find nothing but progress in this fact. Progress now means the progress of the people, as such, and not the progress merely of class or sect. I think we, in our eagerness to secure ideal ethical results, may not appreciate the work that is now done. All proper requirements of the schoolroom, all investigation of truth, the examples of biography and history, the ideals of literature, the example of the teacher, are ethical in their influence. Habit was recognized in the Greek ethical philosophy as of prime importance, and our schools lay a solid foundation of right habit. Moreover, the spirit of reverence which recognizes a great creative power in the universe can be successfully taught in public schools. For the purposes of the schoolroom, selections from various sources, including the Bible, of a strong ethical character, may have more influence than perfunctory religious exercises. In our zeal may we not overdo formal ethical instruction and defeat our aim? The child possesses impulses that reach out toward the truth, beauty, and goodness of the world. Let the teacher invite these impulses by offering the proper objects for their exercise, and all instruction will be ethical instruction. I believe thoroughly in the religious work of the church and the home, and it may be asked if it is not better that the distinctively religious teaching should be given in them.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON ELEMENTARY EDUCATION—ECONOMY IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION.

BY MISS BETTIE A. DUTTON, CLEVELAND, OHIO, CHAIRMAN.

It appears almost superfluous after the recent very full reports of the experts and the scarcely less complete discussions of the same to attempt to say anything valuable on the subject of elementary education. Yet the distance from the daily work of the children sometimes seems to lead to a forgetfulness of immediate needs, which it is possible might be met, and an uplift all along the line be felt, could the attention of the best and widest students of educational problems be secured and brought to bear on the solution of those most immediate, and pressing, and simple.

Can anything be done, any word be said in this meeting of the Council of Education, which will bring into closer working relations those who elaborate the finer theories and those who must meet existing conditions in the schools? Can these conditions be bettered to some extent, by the united care of all, in their most evident needs?

For instance, in school organization. Is it not practicable to reduce materially the number of pupils assigned to one teacher's oversight in primary and grammar schools, that the teacher's care may be so centered as to make possible that personal oversight desirable, and to give to each pupil the benefit of close acquaintance? Just at this point there is special need of change. Teachers are attempting the impossible in the effort to give to each one of a half-hundred children the individual inspiration and uplift which come only from close, personal association.

That large numbers can be successfully controlled; that crowds even can be skillfully manipulated,—and with a dexterity worthy of military generalship,—no one familiar with the movements of large city and town schools can question. But the education of these hosts, if it meet in any true sense the ideals of present progressive leaders of educational forces, must be made far less like the drill of armies. The ideal teacher of to-day is no Napoleon in the schoolroom, and the model school is no longer a battle-ground. We believe there is no practical obstacle in the way of reducing the numbers in our schools at least one-half; and that such reduction would meet the hearty approval of wise patrons and boards of education.

Especially is this reduction important in first years of school-life; when in place of the fifty or sixty small persons, for whom one teacher is striving vainly to care, no more than half these numbers should be grouped together; and this for health, and happiness, and real progress.

Did you ever consider what it is to live daily, and for a series of years, in the constant companionship of a half-hundred people?

Communities are conservative in school appropriation and expenditure, and the financial problem in public school administration is an ever-present one; but in wise expenditure for little children communities are far more responsive than we are apt to believe, and will tax themselves royally when convinced of the need. We would then place, in the first years of school, no more pupils under one teacher than can be known in their homes, studied in detail, led and fostered with individual, painstaking care.

If need for larger classes is anywhere imperative, let it be in the later years, when both teacher and pupils have better learned the adjustments to other than the home life. With the small classes the training should begin at an early age. A bright child, happy in the possession of health and of home comforts, should be permitted very early to begin the search for the knowledge learned from books and teachers; and the less favored children, with homes unworthy of the name, should be afforded early release from the desolations of their unfavored childhood. We are confident that those of our commonwealths, now more than half, that have legislated in favor of early admission to school have secured best opportunity for their children; and that, where the work is wisely planned, this advantage is immeasurable.

Continuous observation along this line for many years convinces us that the pupil of five years is much more readily led to the easy mastery of such of our complex vocabulary as is within its grasp than is the child of one or two years more, of even wise home training and associations; while the difficulties in the way of learning to read are far less formidable. It is a matter of no small moment that the strictest economy of time and mental energy be attained for the multitudes of children whose school-life is limited to elementary work, and whose highest ideals in intellectual attainment are furnished by the teachers of their childhood.

Indeed, it cannot be too vividly impressed upon the consciousness of those having charge of elementary courses of study, that the majority of those enrolled in public schools leave them before the age of twelve years, while they are still little children; a fact which gives importance to all questions relating to their highest efficiency in the accomplishment of those ends for which schools exist—the formation and establishment of right character, the development of mental strength, and the acquisition of useful knowledge. As the richest products of human thought are garnered in books and revealed from the printed page, it is essential, that, whatever other means of education are made use of,—in hand-skill; in physical training; in language, oral and graphic; in music,—the key which opens these rich treasures in literature be placed efficiently in the hand of every pupil within his first school year. The art of learning to read should have been attained, and the child who has had one entire year of school-training should have been given ready ability to read, unassisted, all simple, elegant English; should, in a word, be enjoying free foraging in the fields of knowledge as little hindered by unreadiness in the mastery of the mechanicism of language as are his seniors.

With this work effectively done, with the key to all knowledge thus early placed in their hands, our children would make rapid advance along the customary lines of school attainment and progress. The geography, the history, the arithmetic, the story, and the poem, the helpful description of beauty in flower and sky, in forest and stream, would now be working their blessed ministries in mental furnishing, not as a store on which to draw in that far-off indefinable future which we sometimes flatter ourselves will make all present unassimilated knowledge real, but for the "daily bread" which child mind needs for healthful growth to-day; for the moral support which this early acquaintance with the best thought of the world bestows, and which the growing mind must be familiar with if the best fruits of instruction and training be realized in maturer years.

To this readiness in reading, and carried hand-in-hand with it, the lessons in natural science should be given place in the first school year; and with as clear conception of the end to be attained as is recognized in the process of learning to read. All indefiniteness of purpose should be avoided in this most delicate guidance in the fields where nature must be alone the instructor and interpreter. While every sense is sharpened by the constant habit of observation and comparison, the judgment trained by daily exercise in classification and generalization, these results may not be reached through direct instruction, even though the teacher be of rarest skill.

The science lessons in elementary schools afford a course of danger, scarcely equaled in any other department, of substituting the teacher's statement of well-known natural phenomena, learned too often from books alone, for the results of the pupil's own experience in seeing. If this mistake be frequent and continued, the habit of close and accurate observation and of just conclusion will be weakened and lost, and the science lesson will have served no higher purpose than that of pleasing entertainment.

It was with intense pleasure not many weeks ago that I was permitted to hear, in a city schoolroom where thoughtfulness for results holds high place, a lesson on one of our common wild-wood flowers. The little people had each his own specimen blossom, which he was looking at with delightful intensity, and, while the teacher asked a suggestive question, showing most sympathetic interest. No intrusion of teacher or text-book came in the way of the children's personal acquaintance with the blossom so new and strange to them. When for a few moments they had quietly studied the form and color of blossom, leaf, and stem, had enjoyed the dainty fragrance, counted each for himself the different parts of the flower, measured carefully each one his blossom's tiny stalk, they made the picture; and finally, in writing, the description of the little blossom.

Among many of the pretty descriptions which I glanced over, this one has fixed itself in my memory: "My little blossom must have grown in a shaded place, for it is very pale." Then after giving a very good description of the parts of the tiny plant, he added: "The stamens stand up and look at me like soldiers; and the fragrance of my flower makes me think of something very beautiful."

This exercise was one of many, was no better than others, and in a school whose average age is less than seven years. This plant study was not an exceptional but a daily exercise.

Plant study may not be in itself more desirable for daily work than are the studies of stars or of stones; but as the material for illustration is in this most readily available, and as the flowers appeal unerringly to every true heart, young and old, we have in their use gain in interest inborn or already kindled and glowing. In kindred sciences our children must not be left with unopened eyes.

To be ignorant of the structure of the world, blind to the glory of color and shadow on a mountain wall, to know nothing of that marvelous energy which thrusts the cones and wedges of its crests miles into the immeasurable blue, to fail to follow the stars in their movements and to discern somewhat the laws which control and direct their march, is to lose in large measure the joy, and glory, and privilege of life.

Economy in mental force requires that the children be held in the schoolroom for briefer consecutive periods, and that, while this short session is in progress, the attention to the varying school exercises be intense and all-absorbing. For this reason, we cannot believe that the custom of furnishing for one-half so-called "busy work," while the teacher's care is given to the direct instruction of the other half, is conducive to best habits of study. The ever-multiplying "devices," too often resultant of inability on the teacher's part to hold the attention and of ready enterprise of business firms quick to provide supply for evident demand, lead only to loss if left in manipulation to the children's unguided zeal, while the teacher is in "busy work" of other sort. Teacher and young children should work together in every schoolroom exercise; and every eye and ear should be intent on all words spoken and each exercise performed. The mental impress, to be permanent and clear, must be that of the process instantaneous—neither blurred by too long exposure nor obliterated by needless repetition. To require of one division of pupils fixed attention to study while the teacher is, within their hearing, developing some interesting subject to their mates, is to force unnatural conditions. Who among trained students—how many of the scholarly and self-controlled learners in later life—would for an instant think it possible to work out the problems of absorbing interest in any field of investigation in the presence of a multitude and within sound of even the best beloved human voice!

It has been with serious concern that we have been forced to note in many of our graded schools, and in some whose light has hitherto shone afar, a drift toward departure from quiet personal work in lesson preparation and intensity of attention to class work; and in its place—a reaction we believe from crowded classes and needless formalism—the two or three manifold "divisions" pursuing in one room their varying lines of work. The personal oversight and ready helpfulness, the "word in season" which the "individual" needs, can but be lost or hopelessly deferred in other than wisely administered class work. In fact it is only in the class and only in the single class that individual need is promptly recognized and help effectually given. It is true that no system of classification will bring together, within the limits of reasonable numbers, pupils whose native abilities and acquired power of attainment admit no variations; nor is this an end to be desired or permitted. Sameness of instruction, evenness of process in development of truth, does not argue uniform impression on the mind of the recipient.

Do we not all listen to sweet music and receive uplifting according to the measure of our need and our acceptance? And does not the grateful summer shower fall upon uplifted flower-cups and forest kings with equal benediction? If, then, the minds of our pupils be kept in receptive mood, and instruction worthy of their thought alone be given, we may safely trust to each one to appropriate according to his need, unhindered by the weakness or the strength of his associates; while the teacher's time will be economized and strength and skill conserved for worthiest work.

Of the pitiful expenditure of teaching power permitted in many of our school systems in the attempt to teach exhaustively subjects whose beginnings only are "elementary," we have scarcely the courage to speak. This evil has been often pointed out and vigorous protests uttered by many whom we all delight to honor and whose skilled leadership in school administration has been above question or criticism. The work in English grammar and arithmetic, which the strength of years alone will bring within the mental powers, and which time will so simplify as to make clear almost unaided, is the required work of elementary courses of study and is emphasized in examination lists to-day.

The picture is still vivid in my mind, afforded by modern annual examination opportunity, of a group of well-qualified teachers in these branches, with heads together over one of those improbable arithmetical conundrums such as tradition tells us were frequently submitted "in the early days of the republic," when the time element was unmeasured and electric car and twin-screw steamship, telautograph, and linotype were unknown to the great thinkers of our county district schools. Questions whose solution, like the unraveling of our grandmother's knitting-work, could only be effected in reverse order—by beginning at the toe; banking problems upon which bankers differ, and insurance questions upon which insurance men will not agree; history questions that would make a Fiske or a Von Holts shiver; music that would have silenced a Beethoven forever; language exercises which would tax the linguistic skill of high school principals who can speak or be silent in all the tongues of Southern Europe and the East, are still given to children whose home amusements are paper dolls and kites.

On the successful solution of such puzzles must depend decisions vital to the further school attendance of boys and girls to whom a year marks differences in the determination, not of future courses of study merely but of all subsequent scholastic life.

The common age of pupils leaving our grammar schools for entrance upon higher courses of instruction is fourteen years. That these should be regarded as scholars in any field is unreasoning and cruel. That their training should have made it possible for any to require of them the work of expert scientists, musicians, historians, or arithmeticians is loss to scholarship and violence to childhood. Since ever the world was made beautiful, timeliness has been the order of the universe. It is "first the blade, then the ear, and after that the full corn in the ear."

Economy in moral training in elementary schools makes imperative a higher tone and subtler skill in the instruction given in our normal, high, and training schools. The line must be clearly drawn which separates here the clumsy and commonplace from the skillful and progressive.

Those destitute of high endowment and noble aspiration have no *place in these* schools; whose sole excuse for public favor lies, not in *their own but* in the children's need. Lessons in sweetness of life are lasting only from lips and lives free from the dust and soil of selfishness, and those who would lead children in right paths must draw no wavering lines upon the sand.

With the years of school-life economized by early admission and skilled methods in learning to read, with the science sense made keen and active in these self-same years, with the work which cannot be assimilated deferred until the natural season, with the character built up and fortified by daily, close association with teachers of high culture and rare skill, we may reasonably expect, as product of these factors, all that the public demand in scholarly attainment, in business skill, and in loyal, loving service.

Bettie A. Dutton, *Chairman.*
J. H. Phillips,
George P. Brown,
Zalmon Richards,
William E. Sheldon,
Committee.

DISCUSSION.

[Reported by Wm. F. King.]

Miss Dutton gave as the first point: The need of materially reducing the number of pupils assigned to each teacher in primary and grammar schools, in order to get the benefit of close acquaintance and personal oversight.

Mr. George P. Brown.—I suppose this matter of economy means that we shall avoid waste by reducing the number of pupils from fifty to twenty-five. The school is for vastly more than for teaching the studies laid down in the curriculum. Is there not such a thing as so manipulating fifty pupils as to get satisfactory results? We must have a much more capable body of teachers in our schools, both men and women. We have now 450,000 teachers, and if we double this number we shall have 900,000. The Council could hardly consider such an increase practicable. It seems to me that economy is to begin and continue in the better preparation of teachers. And then, in this matter of numbers, I am inclined to think that the limit is not reached at twenty-five. I am inclined to think, that if our very small schools in the country were twice as large they would be more interesting and successful. In a school of twelve or fifteen, pupils and teachers are somewhat lonesome, while a master at the head of a school makes fifty possible and successful.

Mr. Z. Richards.—I do not rise to differ with Mr. Brown, for he is generally right. I would say, economy of expense as well as economy of time—not the time that the teacher is to devote to the scholar nor the time the scholar attends school. If we can *have the right* kind of a teacher, can we not do better with a small number instead of a larger one? Can we not, by getting better teachers and having a smaller number of pupils, secure much better results? I am fully convinced that with the right kind of primary teachers we can save three years of time to the pupil, enabling him to enter the high school at eleven, instead of fourteen.

MR. BROWN.—Do you think that a desirable thing?

MR. RICHARDS.—Yes; if, as I believe, more than half the time of the pupils in the primary schools of to-day is wasted.

MISS DUTTON, in response to a question, said: "I should like to have more cultured men assist the women in primary work. It would be a good idea for some of the fine scholars to lay aside Latin and Greek for a while and descend to the primary room."

MR. F. LOUIS SOLDAN.—It will be rather difficult to fix abstractly the number of children which are to form the proper quota for a teacher in a public school, because the personal equation—the power and experience of the teacher—would enter very largely into such determination. For the average teacher of fair training and good gifts the quota might be placed considerably higher than twenty-five, which is the number suggested by the report. There is little use in discussing this matter without reference to financial possibility. The means of public education are closely circumscribed. Every friend of education will give ready assent to the general proposition submitted by this able report, namely, that too many pupils are assigned to one teacher in many of our schools. We have heard to-day of schoolrooms in which eighty-five children or more are taught by one teacher, and for such an outrageous condition the plea of financial limitations is but a very bad excuse. Considering existing conditions, the number of forty-five to fifty pupils as a maximum assignment to one teacher seems feasible financially, and presents no educational difficulty.

One of the honored members stated, in the course of this discussion, that, with a quota of fifty pupils, but five or six minutes of the teacher's time could be given to each child. I cannot quite agree with the idea implied by this statement. It would seem to suggest, that of the whole time a child spends daily in school he receives education and instruction for the few minutes only during which he receives the teacher's attention individually. If such a claim were substantiated, the public school, with its popularity, its masses of pupils, would necessarily be a failure, and the private school a success in inverse proportion to the number of its pupils—a statement which few will be ready to accept. The fact is, that, under a good teacher, each individual pupil is kept active during approximately the whole time that the class is under instruction. To illustrate: Whenever a statement is made by teacher or reciting pupil, every other pupil is mentally active while receiving it; when the teacher is asking a question, each child is formulating, mentally, an answer, because he may find himself called on in a moment to state the answer. Since Pestalozzi, the development in teaching has been largely in the direction of the growth of skill in handling masses with good educational effect.

I desire to be understood to be opposed to a larger assignment of pupils than the quota suggested at the beginning of my remarks.

MR. J. W. COOK, being called out by Mr. Brown, said: "Our method has been to bring the parents to the school. We have endeavored to supplement by finding out home methods. The meetings of parents have been very beneficial in starting lines of work in the home to supplement the school, especially in the matter of securing the proper kind of literature for the children."

Miss Dutton gave as her second topic: Use of skilled methods in *learning to read* as bearing upon economy of time. The child in its first year of school training should have learned to read readily and be as little hindered by the mechanism of the language as are his seniors.' She added in defense of this point that it was not simply a theory with her. In the earlier days of her teaching she had eighty five- and six-year-old pupils in one class. Without any theory in mind, she put the five-year-old pupils in one class and those six years old in another, and, giving exactly the same instruction to each class, found that the five-year-old pupils made more improvement in every case. This superiority showed itself especially in reading, but in other subjects, also.

MR. COOK.—Were the five-year-old children exceptional?

MISS DUTTON.—They were just the same.

MR. A. R. TAYLOR.—Did you follow the two classes through the high school?

MISS DUTTON.—I did, and found that the five-year-olds showed superiority in the higher grades of the grammar school and the high school, and they were graduated one year earlier than the six-year-olds.

MR. SOLDAN.—How large a vocabulary do you think these children had?

MISS DUTTON.—I do not know, sir. They could read fluently all the literature adapted to their age.

In reply to the question, as to what method she would recommend in teaching reading, Miss Dutton answered that all methods should be well known by the teacher,—phonetic and phonic, word method and sentence method, analytic and synthetic,—and such discriminiation made in their use as will best serve the immediate demand.

MR. BROWN.—I presume that Miss Dutton does not mean that the five-year-old pupils knew more than those who were six years old, but only that they learned to read better. It is evident that the five-year-old child will have less to think about, and hence less to confuse. A young child can learn the external forms of words more easily.

MR. RICHARDS.—I have noticed that children are more quick to learn at four and five years of age than later.

MR. TAYLOR. Was the slow progress of the six-year-olds not due to the fact, that most of them had already learned to read at home under faulty methods, while the five-year-olds probably began to learn to read in your classes?

MISS DUTTON.—That is hardly probable.

MR. TAYLOR.—Might not those six-year-old children have done much more?

MISS DUTTON.—Had they been received into school life at five, and given a year's proper training, undoubtedly they might.

MR. JOSEPH BALDWIN.—Did you teach these five-year-olds with more enthusiasm?

MISS DUTTON.—I think not.

MR. TAYLOR.—The report of the committee seems to warrant the statement that reading needs more emphasis in the lower grades than the elements of the natural sciences.

MR. RICHARDS.—What has been said seems to prove that at least two or three years are wasted in the elementary schools.

MR. H. H. SEERLEY.—I approve the statement in the report advising the teaching of five-year-old children to read, as I know it is possible and not difficult to do. My own experience as a child verifies it. I learned to read at home under the instruction of my mother, so that my first recollections at school, and that at the time I was four and one-half years of age, are that I belonged to a reading class in a district school that used the third reader as a class-book In the summer term of my fifth year I read with a reading class that used as a text McGuffy's third reader, first edition,—a book equivalent in grade almost to McGuffy's fourth reader of recent years,—and I know that I understood reasonably well what I thus read, being also able to read with fair facility from the New Testament Scriptures. In fact, after five years of age, all my lessons in reading were hardly of the character of school studies, as I made no preparation to be able to read readily any of the daily lessons given the class. In my judgment, therefore, the early teaching of reading is not only possible but desirable, as the child's mind at five years is capable of doing it better than at any other time in life.

One other statement from experience. The argument has been made that a child's vocabulary does not average over 300 words at five years of age. I feel certain that this statement is misleading; the average American child knows and uses more. I have been recently tabulating the vocabulary of an average child. He is not yet three years of age and has already a vocabulary of over 600 words. I feel assured, therefore, that we are inclined to underestimate, rather than overestimate, the average child's vocabulary at the time he is five years of age. He knows more than we think he does.

Miss Dutton here presented the third topic as follows: **To this readiness in reading, and carried hand in hand with it, the lessons in natural science should be given place in the first school year, and with as clear a conception of the end to be attained as is recognized in the process of learning to read.**

MR. C. B. GILBERT.—Those of us who favor the study of nature by children in the primary schools do not mean by that study the use of the scientific method. We agree entirely with Dr. Harris in opposing the acquainting young children with this method. The scientific method consists in analysis and classification. This is for maturer minds. Young children should study nature sympathetically. The whole beautiful world belongs to the children. They are in sympathy with it, and they can appreciate its beauties as completely as you can. I regret, that, in the discussions to-day, so much attention has been given to the form of education and so little to its content—so much to instruction and so little to real education. Instruction is but one side of education—one element. Especially is this true of moral education.

I believe in the study of nature by little children for many reasons. It brings new and valuable content into their lives. It introduces them to a new world—the beautiful world that God has made. It furnishes a valuable basis for their instruction in form. I do not care for short methods in teaching reading as a formal study—a mere study of words. It is of no value for the child to learn to read words or to write words unless he has something worth while to read or write about. The literature that he can obtain in the reading-book is of little worth to him. He must get his truth, if he gets it through literature, after it has been filtered through adult minds and adapted to him. He can appreciate Nature as she is. Let him go to her and get content-matter for his reading and writing. I believe in the study of nature by the little child, not merely because it cultivates his powers of observation—not merely because it trains his judgment, as emphasized in the report—but because it has an ethical value. It reaches his spiritual nature. It gives a purpose to all of his education which he himself can appreciate, as he cannot the study of form merely.

Mr. L. H. Jones.—Methods may be employed which will make the teaching of natural science inimical to progress in learning to read; but better methods may be employed which will show these lessons on nature study to be necessary to and complementary to the work of learning to read. It is doubtless the latter method of procedure which is intended in this report. In this form of work, nature study leads a child into a new field of experience, and creates for him the need of a new and different vocabulary from that of his colloquial range. It also enables the child to put new and deeper significance into that which he reads, whatever the vocabulary used. I am heartily in sympathy with the attitude assumed in this matter in the report.

Mr. Soldan noted a coincidence in these two points, and further discussed the relation of study of books and nature in natural science. Care should be exercised in the kind of natural science taught. Rousseau declared reading and the study of natural science to be inimical.

Mr. Jones said this would be due to the method of teaching employed.

Miss Dutton presented as the fourth topic: Shorter school sessions, and more direct attention from all pupils during that time. The teacher should also be able to give her direct personal attention to everything going on, including the so-called "busy work."

Mr. Brown.—Perhaps this so-called "busy work" was valuable work.

Miss Dutton.—Its highest value could only be reached by the careful guidance of the teacher leading to right habits of study. When the children are quietly at work they need, more than at any other time, the teacher's undivided attention.

Mr. D. L. Kiehle.—With reference to the short sessions recommended, what would you say of the three-hour sessions of the kindergarten?

Miss Dutton.—In this respect there was a violation of sound educational principles.

Mr. Richards.—I understand that Miss Dutton would have but one kind of work at a time, and hence a smaller number.

Mr. D. L. Kiehle.—We shall all agree that the sort of busy work so often seen, which is but an aimless playing or fussing with material, is unworthy any place in our schools. It seems to me that it is a mistake to limit the hours of companionship with the teacher to the brief time given to earnest or intense activity in recitation. I should prefer such an arrangement of programs as will cultivate quiet, continuous, and persistent attention to subjects of interest, without what often appears as a strained and unnatural activity. To do this, there must be a varied program of physical and intellectual activity with frequent recreation and rest. All of which should be in the presence of and under the proper influence of the teacher. This done, there is no difficulty in continuing children in school five or even six hours a day.

Prior to adjournment the remaining points of the report were read without discussion.

On Saturday, when the report as a whole was under considera*tion:*

Mr. James H. Baker said: "I wish to ask whether the question of economy of time, as suggested in a practical way by Miss Dutton's experience in teaching reading, may not be carried farther? In our refinements of method and exact application of ideal theories may we not waste time in all departments of elementary education? Do we recognize the full extent of knowledge and power which the pupil possesses when he enters school at the age of six. Might he not advance in essentials of education more rapidly? The report of the committee of ten showed that the various conferences recommended that certain studies usually confined to the high school should be taken up in the elementary school. The suggestion was not considered by the Council nor the committee of fifteen. Teachers reply: 'Crowded courses; no room for anything more.' Now, the inquiry is made all along the line, 'Can the whole period of general education be shortened?' and it is important that the question be answered for the elementary period by educators experienced in the work of that period. In Prussia three years, instead of eight, are given to elementary work, and at the age of nine high school work in method and organization begins. At the age of fourteen all the studies have been included which are recommended by the conferences, and it is agreed, that, in invaluable insight into leading subjects, the pupil is farther advanced than the American boy at the same age; and this results from economy of time in the elementary work and early introduction to other subjects. I hope members of the Council will give us the benefit of their views in the light of the experience of the last fifteen years."

Mr. Gilbert.—Too much stress is put upon this question of saving time. What would be gained by putting pupils of primary grade into secondary work? The tendency of our times is to hurry through life. The true economy is to enrich the courses. It is a mistake to rush a child too soon into the college and university. What we should do is to give the child's mind all that it can use. Fill its curriculum with that which is worth while.

Mr. Cook.-I deem it proper to refer to a case in Illinois. In Decatur the work below the high school is done in seven years, and the high school has become the most popular school in that city.

Mr. B. A. Hinsdale.—How long has this been in vogue?

Mr. Cook. -Several years.

Mr. N. C. Dougherty.—Are the graduates of the high school who are prepared to enter our best colleges younger than those of other high schools in Illinois?

Mr. Cook.—Yes, by a year; and I regard the size of the Decatur High School as an unanswerable argument in favor of the plan.

Mr. Richards.-Life is short; art is long. I have made some calculations and have found that nearly two-thirds of our children in elementary schools do not go over five years. Is it not important to save all we can of the five years? Reading has been spoken of as a mere formal exercise; but reading is not simply a formality. It is educative. Let the children command the language.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON STATE SCHOOL SYSTEMS —UNGRADED SCHOOLS.

BY HENRY SABIN, DES MOINES, IOWA, CHAIRMAN.

This report has reference only to questions which concern schools in the rural districts and the smaller villages in which no attempt is made at grading the pupils. The aim has been to make it strictly a business paper, dealing with facts and with theories which are both practicable and of immediate importance. Early in the spring your committee sent to each state superintendent a circular asking for information concerning revenues, organization, and preparation of teachers for ungraded schools. The plan of supervision, attendance, and the course of study were included, as incidental. Replies were received from twenty-five states, viz.: Iowa, Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, New York, South Carolina, Florida, California, Nevada, Maine, Kentucky, Texas, Minnesota, Missouri, Michigan, Rhode Island, New Jersey, Nebraska, Mississippi, Delaware, Massachusetts, Montana, Pennsylvania, Virginia, and Wisconsin. In addition a large number of state reports have been consulted, as furnishing desirable information. The information thus gained is embodied in the report in the following order of subjects: Revenues and distribution of same; organization of schools; supply of teachers.

REVENUES.

The school funds are derived mainly from three sources, namely, permanent or invested funds, state tax, and local taxes imposed upon towns or districts by vote of the inhabitants. Local taxes are imposed in each of the forty-nine states and territories, including the District of Columbia; thirty-nine have what is termed a permanent school fund, the interest of which is distributed in support of the schools, but the principal remains inviolate. Thirty-one supplement the proceeds of this fund by state tax. Ten have no permanent school fund; seven of these support their schools by state tax alone, and three by local tax.

In preference to any attempt at tabulation we have made extracts from answers received to the circular and from state reports, as showing the trend of opinion in the different states.

It will be noticed, that, while the answers and suggestions differ in accordance with the civil organization of different states, there is *substantial accord* of sentiment in favor of a change in the method of taxation, and that school district taxation especially meets with little favor. These quotations could be largely increased, if necessary, but the length of this paper will not admit of it. They look to some way of obtaining a remedy for the gross inequality which exists, not between the city and the country schools but between the ungraded schools in different districts of the same township.

The quotations are as follows:

Kentucky.—As revenue to pay teachers and superintendents, we would prefer county taxation after, and as supplemental to, state taxation.

Missouri.—Revenues for the support of the ungraded schools are derived chiefly by a direct tax levied only by each district. I prefer a township tax.

Mississippi.—I believe in a mixed revenue system; the state providing a certain proportion of the money necessary to maintain schools and distributing it to the county, township, or district, as the case may be, upon the basis of educable children. This to be supplemented by a county tax, distributed to the townships or districts on the basis of educable children; the townships or districts being permitted to levy such additional tax as they may see fit.

Texas.—The revenues for the support of the ungraded schools derived from local sources are very small. I should very much prefer a good, liberal, county school tax to any other means of local support.

Florida.—I would prefer a state levy, with county option to increase it.

Nevada.—I prefer the county tax.

Maine.—I prefer a tax raised upon the entire township.

Montana.—Revenue is raised by county taxation. I prefer this method.

Pennsylvania.—I incline to the opinion that a levy by the county would be more equable. Some townships in this state levy no tax. Others levy the maximum limit allowed by the law, namely, thirteen mills for building purposes and thirteen mills for maintenance.

Indiana.—We can make a levy anywhere from one to thirty-five cents on each one hundred dollars, and may go as high as fifty cents on the polls. We like the township system in this state, because it is so much cheaper.

Wisconsin.—The revenues for the support of the ungraded schools are raised in part by the district, part by the county upon different townships, and in part by the state. It would seem more equable if raised by the township instead of the district.

South Dakota.—Under our constitution we cannot have state uniformity of school taxation, but for school purposes we can provide for county tax levies that shall relieve the weak districts from the greater part of their burdens. This would be much better than our present method of taxation, under which the local school tax in some districts has been at times as high as twenty mills, while in other districts having equally good school privileges the levy for the same years has been only five mills or less.

Massachusetts.—The Massachusetts Teachers' Association resolved, that, for the purpose of enabling the poorer towns of the commonwealth to have the continuous service of trained teachers, adequate assistance should be afforded by the state, and for this purpose an enlargement of the state school fund should be made. Our revenues are wholly from town and state, principally from town tax. The low valuation of small towns makes it desirable to have a larger contribution from the state.

Minnesota.—The taxation by districts is, in the highest degree, unequal and *exceedingly burdensome* to the smaller and weaker ones. In some, the tax is one mill on the dollar, while in others it reaches twenty-nine or thirty. The districts that really need the best schools have the poorest, the school year is the shortest, and the poverty-stricken inhabitants actually pay the highest tax.

Wisconsin Report, 1893-94.—When taxation is made equal throughout the townships, the smaller districts will demand equal consideration with the larger ones in the selection of teachers and in the equipment of the schoolhouses.

Washington.—In my judgment, if the policy is to be continued of allowing the county commissioners to levy the school tax, they should be compelled to levy such a tax as will produce a specified amount for each child of school age in the county, and that amount should be such as, with the state apportionment, would provide for each district an ample fund to maintain a school for a reasonable length of time during the year.

Vermont.—If the town as a social unit provides the major part of the revenue for the public schools by an equal taxation, it should also disburse such revenue. It is a fallacy to think that equalization of taxes and the district system are compatible.

The spirit of our institutions is that of equality before the law. A system of schools which does not provide equal school facilities to all children within its limits is not an American system. To put this in different words: An American system of schools should seek to so equalize the burden of taxation that weak and impoverished districts with a low valuation should still be able to maintain a school equal in length of term and in its equipment to other schools of the same grade in that township or county.

Many excellent reasons can be advanced why the state should bear the entire burden of taxation necessary to the purpose of common school education. These reasons are, however, more than counterbalanced by the objection that it would remove the schools too far from the people, and would diminish the interest which they ought to have in providing means necessary to the rightful instruction of their children. It is the policy of our government to impress upon the people the fact that they are the government, and that everything which tends to strength and permanence comes from their united and intelligent action. While we believe that it is right that the state should provide a generous amount, either by a tax of a certain number of mills on each dollar of valuation or by a certain fixed sum in the aggregate, we also believe that local taxation is necessary to the healthful growth and prosperity of the schools. The question is, What would be the unit of taxation? Your committee are unanimous in the opinion that the system of district taxation in use in many states is both unjust and vicious. The argument is founded upon facts. Wherever there is a sparsely inhabited district, or one in which the valuation is low, the school interests suffer for want of sufficient support. Thus, in one district the children must put up with a cheap, incompetent teacher and six months' school, while across an imaginary line children have the advantages of a good teacher and of nine months' schooling. This is not in accordance with the spirit of free schools. It is true that the same discrepancies may exist to a diminished extent between different townships, and hence there has arisen the thought that the county is probably the best unit of taxation. This question must be settled very largely by the civil organization of the state and by the character of its population. In the older states, where the population has some degree of permanency and where the township organization has a clearly defined relation to the state, probably the township furnishes the best unit. On the other hand, in the newer states, sparsely populated, or in states in which the population is largely transitory or engaged in occupations which do not encourage the owning of homes, the best unit is the county. If the point is raised, that it is unjust thus to tax the wealthier portions of a county or township to support schools from which they can derive no benefit, the only answer is, that we not only educate the child at the public expense for the child's sake but also for the sake of the civilization in which he is to live. The state as a state has an immediate interest in the future of every child who is to become a citizen. We reach these conclusions, then: That the unit should be the county or the township, and that the law should be mandatory, compelling the levying of an amount as a minimum, which, added to the revenue derived from the state, would furnish reasonable school facilities to every child living upon that territory. This, however, should not prevent any community from imposing additional taxes upon themselves, if facilities of a higher order are desired.

The ungraded schools need this protection. They are suffering from low wages, short terms, and incompetent teachers. The question of insufficient finances is at the foundation of the trouble. We have solved one equation of the problem when we have adopted the most equable and acceptable method of supplying funds.

DISTRIBUTION OF REVENUES.

A question of equal importance presents itself in the methods of distributing revenues. In most of the states the distribution is based upon the number of children of school age in the township or district. This offers the temptation to swell the number included in the school census to its utmost limit in order to obtain a larger share of money from the state funds. The injustice of it is more clearly seen in the fact that the number of residents between certain ages furnishes no criterion of the actual school necessities of the district. It is as far out of the way as it would be to base the distribution of school funds upon the assessed valuation of the territory in question or upon the number of the people of all ages.

These two points are to be kept in view. The funds must be distributed so as to equalize as far as possible school privileges, and at the same time stimulate the community to take advantage of the opportunities thus afforded their children. A few extracts from letters and reports will illustrate the methods in use at present, and also show the trend of educational opinion.

Illinois.—The state apportions the amount derived from the state school fund to the common schools on the basis of the number of persons under twenty-one years of age residing in the counties, as shown by the national census.

New Jersey.—Our ungraded schools derive most of their entire revenue from this state in the following manner: Two hundred dollars per each teacher employed and the balance per capita according to school census.

Pennsylvania.—The revenues for the support of the ungraded schools in Pennsylvania are distributed on the basis of the number of taxables at the triennial assessment.

Florida.—The one-mill tax is apportioned among the counties on the basis of the average attendance upon schools.

Mississippi.—The money is distributed to the counties and separate school districts on the basis of educable children in each.

Nebraska.—The interest of the permanent state endowment is apportioned to the school population.

Rhode Island.—The state money for schools is divided in all the cities and towns upon two different plans. Each town gets one hundred dollars for each school up to fifteen in number, and after that, all that is left is divided in proportion to the number of children of school age.

Minnesota.—The current school fund is apportioned to the districts in proportion to the number of pupils who have attended school at least forty days in the year.

Virginia.—State school money is apportioned on the basis of the school population.

Ohio.—The auditor of state shall apportion the state common school fund to the several counties of the state semi-annually, upon the basis of enumeration of youth therein. But the law, in another section, provides that so much of the contingent fund as may be set apart by a township board for the continuance of schools after the state funds are exhausted shall be so apportioned by the board that the schools in all the sub-districts of the township shall be continued the same length of time each year.

Iowa Report.—The suggestion made by my predecessor, that the apportionment of money, at present derived from the interest of the permanent school fund and other sources, should be based upon the average daily attendance for the preceding year, as reported by the county superintendent to the superintendent of public instruction, carries with it much force. It seems the only just and equitable way, when we consider that the money would thus reach those schools in which there is the most work to be done on account of the large number of pupils. In fact, such an enactment would doubtless increase the attendance, and act as a very efficient auxiliary to a compulsory law.

Washington Report.—The manner of apportioning the common school fund among the various districts is a matter that has often been the subject of interesting discussions; and, while the method at present in vogue seems not to have been very seriously criticised since its adoption, there are grave doubts as to its efficacy in accomplishing the best results possible with the fund at our disposal.

Mr. H. H. Seerley.—I approve the statement in the report advising the teaching of five-year-old children to read, as I know it is possible and not difficult to do. My own experience as a child verifies it. I learned to read at home under the instruction of my mother, so that my first recollections at school, and that at the time I was four and one-half years of age, are that I belonged to a reading class in a district school that used the third reader as a class-book. In the summer term of my fifth year I read with a reading class that used as a text McGuffy's third reader, first edition,—a book equivalent in grade almost to McGuffy's fourth reader of recent years,—and I know that I understood reasonably well what I thus read, being also able to read with fair facility from the New Testament Scriptures. In fact, after five years of age, all my lessons in reading were hardly of the character of school studies, as I made no preparation to be able to read readily any of the daily lessons given the class. In my judgment, therefore, the early teaching of reading is not only possible but desirable, as the child's mind at five years is capable of doing it better than at any other time in life.

One other statement from experience. The argument has been made that a child's vocabulary does not average over 300 words at five years of age. I feel certain that this statement is misleading; the average American child knows and uses more. I have been recently tabulating the vocabulary of an average child. He is not yet three years of age and has already a vocabulary of over 600 words. I feel assured, therefore, that we are inclined to underestimate, rather than overestimate, the average child's vocabulary at the time he is five years of age. He knows more than we think he does.

Miss Dutton here presented the third topic as follows: **To this readiness in reading, and carried hand in hand with it, the lessons in natural science should be given place in the first school year, and with as clear a conception of the end to be attained as is recognized in the process of learning to read.**

Mr. C. B. Gilbert.—Those of us who favor the study of nature by children in the primary schools do not mean by that study the use of the scientific method. We agree entirely with Dr. Harris in opposing the acquainting young children with this method. The scientific method consists in analysis and classification. This is for maturer minds. Young children should study nature sympathetically. The whole beautiful world belongs to the children. They are in sympathy with it, and they can appreciate its beauties as completely as you can. I regret, that, in the discussions to-day, so much attention has been given to the form of education and so little to its content—so much to instruction and so little to real education. Instruction is but one side of education - one element. Especially is this true of moral education.

I believe in the study of nature by little children for many reasons. It brings new and valuable content into their lives. It introduces them to a new world—the beautiful world that God has made. It furnishes a valuable basis for their instruction in form. I do not care for short methods in teaching reading as a formal study—a mere study of words. It is of no value for the child to learn to read words or to write words unless he has something worth while to read or write about. The literature that he can obtain in the reading-book is of little worth to him. He must get his truth, if he gets it through literature, after it has been filtered through adult minds and adapted to him. He can appreciate Nature as she is. Let him go to her and get content-matter for his reading and writing. I believe in the study of nature by the little child, not merely because it cultivates his powers of observa-

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Texas.—I prefer the township system, with the county system as a close second choice. The district is too small to permit the organization of schools of different grades. The county is larger than necessary. The township is free from both objections.

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Iowa.—The only feasible remedy for these evils is to return as soon as possible to the provision of the organic law of 1858, making each civil township a district for school purposes.

New Hampshire.—The most far-reaching change made in the last ten years has been the substitution of the town system for the effete and impotent system of district schools. The district school had lost much of its usefulness, and was, in many towns, no longer susceptible of improvement. Under the town system it is regaining its power, and a better educated class of children is growing up in the rural sections of the state.

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The principal arguments in favor of making the civil township the unit may be stated briefly as follows:

1. The number of school officials would be greatly reduced; and, hence, less liability to loss of funds through incompetency or dishonesty. In Iowa, 27,000 school officers are serving as members of school boards. The secretaries and treasurers receive $135,000 annually as compensation for their services. In Minnesota, the township system would reduce the number of school officers from 18,000 to 3,000. In Wisconsin, it is estimated that the sum of $190,000 is wasted annually upon unnecessary schools. Under the district system, there is a great waste of supplies in one school, and a want of the same in another; buildings are allowed to become dilapidated for want of attention; several school officials are paid, when one officer

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It is plainly the consensus of opinion that the prevailing system of distributing school funds, *pro rata*, upon the school population as a basis, is detrimental to the interests of the rural schools. The result of this plan of distribution has been to give an undue advantage to the schools in the strong districts, and to leave those in thinly settled and impoverished districts helpless and unprovided for. Several states have already sought a remedy. If it is right to tax all for the benefit of all, then it is just to so distribute the funds thus raised as to accrue to the advantage of the entire community.

The most feasible methods of distribution cannot be discussed without reference to the next topic in this report; that of organization. We, however, cannot fail to reach the conclusion that justice to the rural schools demands that some method be devised which will insure a reasonable support to the weakest school, and at the same time act as a stimulant in obtaining the highest possible per cent of attendance.

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The limits of this report will only allow to us to say, that, with but very few exceptions, the judgment of state superintendents, as gathered from their replies to the circular sent to them and from various state reports, is strongly in favor of the township as the unit of organization.

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would suffice. In these respects the township system would effect a saving of thousands of dollars annually. It is simply applying business principles to the business affairs of the schools.

2. The township board of education, a certain proportion going out of office every year, should be armed with the same powers and exercise the same duties as the board of education in the city or in the independent district. They should appoint teachers, locate buildings, select text-books, determine courses of study, designate what schools pupils may attend, consolidate schools when their numbers are reduced to a certain extent; and, in fact, transact any business which may lawfully come before them. Subdistrict lines would disappear and a most fruitful cause of trouble cease at once. In unity there is strength. To place all the schools of a township under the control of one governing board would tend to equalize length of terms, strengthen the teacher's position, and lift the schools to a higher place in the estimation of the public.

3. The township system affords the only means through which we may hope to reach township high schools and township supervision. We believe these two points are essential in any system looking to the improvement of the ungraded schools. The township high school has become a necessity, if we are to lift the rural school out of the rut into which it has fallen. To promote the highest efficiency of such a school it must be in complete and perfect harmony with the schools of the township. This cannot be the case unless they are all under the control of one board and supported from the same general funds. The establishment of these high schools would furnish a needed incitement to the pupils in the lower grades in the country, and would stimulate them to remain longer in school that they might graduate at the end of the course. It would dissipate the aimlessness of study and instruction so prevalent in the country schools of to-day. The answer to the question, Is it possible to arrange the course so as to lead up to the establishment of the township high school? is invariably in the affirmative. Township supervision is a natural result of the township system. It has already become an established feature of the Massachusetts system. It is rapidly gaining ground in Ohio under the Workman law. It is the objective point at which the board of education is aiming in New Jersey, and other states are developing the idea of either township or of some other form of close supervision in connection with the ungraded schools.

The establishment of the township high school would tend to strengthen the county superintendency. These schools would afford better facilities for the academic instruction of teachers. They could be utilized as centers of normal instruction. The township superintendent would naturally become the ally of the county superintendent in conducting educational meetings, in grading the schools, and in fostering a healthy public opinion in favor of good schools, competent teachers, and liberal salaries.

4. The adoption of the township system equalizes the burdens of taxation, and renders it possible to distribute state school funds in inverse ratio with the wealth of the towns. If the towns of the state have a valuation upon a common basis, then it is just, that, to a certain extent, those lowest in the scale should receive the greatest aid from state funds, in order that every community may be sure of good schools. This is the Massachusetts plan. In some states, notably in Massachusetts, New Jersey, and Rhode Island, a fixed sum is set aside for every school before any general distribution is made. The method of determining the exact amount thus placed to the credit of each school may be different in different states, but we believe the underlying principle to be correct, that public policy demands that the strong shall help bear the burdens of the weak. The remainder of state or county funds should be distributed to each township in a ratio based upon the actual attendance of pupils as shown by the record of the preceding year, with a possible discrimination in favor of those towns most willing to impose taxes upon themselves.

There is not time to discuss other points. Under the Workman law, in Ohio, many of the benefits of the township system may be obtained without abolishing subdistrict lines. Under the Boxwell law, in the same state, the tuition of graduates from ungraded schools may be paid by the township board in the high school of any neighboring city or village of the county. Such a provision in the law is practically introducing the county high school, and in many states would be a most desirable feature. In Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and other states, township boards are authorized to pay out of public funds for the transportation of pupils to such schools as it seems best for them to attend. Thus they are enabled in small towns to bring all the children to a central school, or to unite two or more small schools, lessening the expense, and at the same time improving the educational advantages of the townships. These points, with many others, are all germane to our general subject, but there is not time to discuss them in this connection. It must suffice to say, that we can reach no other conclusion than this: The substitution of the township for the district as the unit of organization is absolutely essential to the highest good of the ungraded schools.

SUPPLY OF TEACHERS.

The great question of the supply of competent teachers for the ungraded schools remains to be discussed. Of every one hundred pupils enrolled in the *public* schools, Texas reports that eighty are in the ungraded schools; Indiana, sixty-five; Illinois, forty-two; New Jersey, twenty-five; Minnesota, forty; Ohio, fifty; Wisconsin, fifty-eight; Florida, ninety; Massachusetts reports only ten; California reports no ungraded schools, but forty per cent of the pupils are in schools of one or two rooms. These figures, at best, are only approximate; but they are enough to show the magnitude of the question under discussion. Undoubtedly the number of pupils enrolled in ungraded schools will reach nearly, if not quite, fifty per cent of the entire enrollment. If we include schools of two or three rooms having practically no supervision, and which are but partially graded, the per cent would be much higher. It is very difficult to gather statistics which show the number of teachers in the ungraded schools having anything like an adequate preparation for their work. When we take into consideration the fact, that the very large percentage of graduates of our normal schools is absorbed by the schools in the cities and larger villages, and that generally the bright teachers, who have had the benefit of a partial course in the normal school, work their way into graded schools as fast as possible, it is evident that the schools in the country are mainly left to the care of novices without any special training.

The school age, the manner of gathering statistics, the number of months in the school year, vary so much in the different states that it is impossible to arrive at anything but general conclusions. In the number of trained teachers employed in the different states there is a wide margin. Virginia and Kentucky report only ten of every one hundred teachers as having anything like an adequate preparation for their work. Texas and Nebraska report only a very few. In some parts of California seventy per cent have professional training; in others, as low as ten.

Rhode Island.—About ten per cent with only a common school education, forty per cent normal trained teachers, and the remainder having either a high school or an academic training.

Missouri.—About twenty-five per cent of the teachers in ungraded schools are really prepared to teach.

Minnesota.—About nineteen per cent of the teachers in our common school districts have attended normal school.

Michigan.—About twenty or twenty-five per cent of the teachers of the schools have had some normal training.

Wisconsin.—About fifty per cent of the teachers are really prepared for their work. Two thousand six hundred and forty-four of them claim no higher preparation than that obtained in the common schools.

Indiana.—About fifteen to twenty-five per cent of our teachers in the ungraded schools have had an adequate preparation for their work.

It is not necessary to follow these statistics. They are taken from different sections of the country and are sufficient to indicate conditions in the rural schools. What is a fairly adequate preparation for the work of these schools? When we consider the low salaries paid, the short term of continuance in the work,—not much if any over three years,—it is evident that we cannot require a high standard of scholarship nor four years' attendance at a preparatory school. A reasonable preparation ought to embrace these three particulars:

1. A thorough acquaintance with the elementary branches. This would include a discussion of the educational values of these branches, both as sources of knowledge and of discipline; what studies should be introduced as best calculated to benefit the children in the mining districts, in the farming districts, and other questions as incidental to the formation of courses of study, which should be sufficiently elastic to suit conditions in different sections of the same state. But these all yield preference to the thought, that whatever the teacher attempts to teach, that she herself must know.

2. A practical knowledge of the best methods of teaching, of school management, and an elementary knowledge of the principles of education.

3. More or less practice in actual school work under a skilled trainer. This preparation would touch the three points in which the country school teacher is weakest.

These are the minimum of requirements, and can possibly be compassed in a two years' course, provided the entrance examination is rigid in the fundamental branches. Here we are confronted with the fact that no state provides means sufficient to give to the teachers advantages for obtaining this special preparation. Massachusetts, with six normal schools and with four additional schools in course of erection, comes the nearest to it. Pennsylvania has thirteen normal schools, each well equipped, but she has an army of 26,000 teachers. New York, with eleven schools and a large number of training classes, is yet very far from being able to place a trained teacher in every schoolroom in the state. To put Iowa on an equal footing with Massachusetts would require the establishment of twenty-five normal schools. While the erection, in any state, of high grade normal schools as centers of influence and enlightenment, with courses of instruction covering three or four years, is exceedingly desirable, it is evident that the solution of the problem does not lie in that direction.

There are four courses open to us:

1. The improvement of the county institute. This is not the place to discuss the institute system, except as regards a few particulars in which it touches closely the preparation of teachers for rural schools. It will not do to turn the institute into a school for academic work, the aim being to enable the teachers to pass the examination. The tendency in this direction is altogether bad. The spirit

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There is not time to discuss other points. Under the Workman law, in Ohio, many of the benefits of the township system may be obtained without abolishing subdistrict lines. Under the Boxwell law, in the same state, the tuition of graduates from ungraded schools may be paid by the township board in the high school of any neighboring city or village of the county. Such a provision in the law is practically introducing the county high school, and in many states would be a most desirable feature. In Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and other states, township boards are authorized to pay out of public funds for the transportation of pupils to such schools as it seems best for them to attend. Thus they are enabled in small towns to bring all the children to a central school, or to unite two or more small schools, lessening the expense, and at the same time improving the educational advantages of the townships. These points, with many others, are all germane to our general subject, but there is not time to discuss them in this connection. It must suffice to say, that we can reach no other conclusion than this: The substitution of the township for the district as the unit of organization is absolutely essential to the highest good of the ungraded schools.

SUPPLY OF TEACHERS.

The great question of the supply of competent teachers for the ungraded schools remains to be discussed. Of every one hundred pupils enrolled in the public schools, Texas reports that eighty are in the ungraded schools; Indiana, sixty-five; Illinois, forty-two; New Jersey, twenty-five; Minnesota, forty; Ohio, fifty; Wisconsin, fifty-eight; Florida, ninety; Massachusetts reports only ten; California reports no ungraded schools, but forty per cent of the pupils are in schools of one or two rooms. These figures, at best, are only approximate; but they are enough to show the magnitude of the question under discussion. Undoubtedly the number of pupils enrolled in ungraded schools will reach nearly, if not quite, fifty per cent of the entire enrollment. If we include schools of two or three rooms having practically no supervision, and which are but partially graded, the per cent would be much higher. It is very difficult to gather statistics which show the number of teachers in the ungraded schools having anything like an adequate preparation for their work. When we take into consideration the fact, that the very large percentage of graduates of our normal schools is absorbed by the schools in the cities and larger villages, and that generally the bright teachers, who have had the benefit of a partial course in the normal school, work their way into graded schools as fast as possible, it is evident that the schools in the country are mainly left to the care of novices without any special training.

The school age, the manner of gathering statistics, the number of months in the school year, vary so much in the different states that it is impossible to arrive at anything but general conclusions. In the number of trained teachers employed in the different states there is a wide margin. Virginia and Kentucky report only ten of every one hundred teachers as having anything like an adequate preparation for their work. Texas and Nebraska report only a very few. In some parts of California seventy per cent have professional training; in others, as low as ten.

Rhode Island.—About ten per cent with only a common school education, forty per cent normal trained teachers, and the remainder having either a high school or an academic training.

Missouri.—About twenty-five per cent of the teachers in ungraded schools are really prepared to teach.

Minnesota.—About nineteen per cent of the teachers in our common school districts have attended normal school.

Michigan.—About twenty or twenty-five per cent of the teachers of the schools have had some normal training.

Wisconsin.—About fifty per cent of the teachers are really prepared for their work. Two thousand six hundred and forty-four of them claim no higher preparation than that obtained in the common schools.

Indiana.—About fifteen to twenty-five per cent of our teachers in the ungraded schools have had an adequate preparation for their work.

It is not necessary to follow these statistics. They are taken from *different sections* of the country and are sufficient to indicate conditions in the rural schools. What is a fairly adequate preparation for the work of these schools? When we consider the low salaries paid, the short term of continuance in the work,—not much if any over three years,—it is evident that we cannot require a high standard of scholarship nor four years' attendance at a preparatory school. A reasonable preparation ought to embrace these three particulars:

1. A thorough acquaintance with the elementary branches. This would include a discussion of the educational values of these branches, both as sources of knowledge and of discipline; what studies should be introduced as best calculated to benefit the children in the mining districts, in the farming districts, and other questions as incidental to the formation of courses of study, which should be sufficiently elastic to suit conditions in different sections of the same state. But these all yield preference to the thought, that whatever the teacher attempts to teach, that she herself must know.

2. A practical knowledge of the best methods of teaching, of school management, and an elementary knowledge of the principles of education.

3. More or less practice in actual school work under a skilled trainer. This preparation would touch the three points in which the country school teacher is weakest.

These are the minimum of requirements, and can possibly be compassed in a two years' course, provided the entrance examination is rigid in the fundamental branches. Here we are confronted with the fact that no state provides means sufficient to give to the teachers advantages for obtaining this special preparation. Massachusetts, with six normal schools and with four additional schools in course of erection, comes the nearest to it. Pennsylvania has thirteen normal schools, each well equipped, but she has an army of 26,000 teachers. New York, with eleven schools and a large number of training classes, is yet very far from being able to place a trained teacher in every schoolroom in the state. To put Iowa on an equal footing with Massachusetts would require the establishment of twenty-five normal schools. While the erection, in any state, of high grade normal schools as centers of influence and enlightenment, with courses of instruction covering three or four years, is exceedingly desirable, it is evident that the solution of the problem does not lie in that direction.

There are four courses open to us:

1. The improvement of the county institute. This is not the place to discuss the institute system, except as regards a few particulars in which it touches closely the preparation of teachers for rural schools. It will not do to turn the institute into a school for academic work, the aim being to enable the teachers to pass the examination. *The tendency* in this direction is altogether bad. The spirit

in which the institute was founded, calculated to create and foster a professional enthusiasm among teachers and an educational enthusiasm in the entire community, should not be overlooked. It is a very essential feature in the system. In the Western and Southern States, where for a time we must depend upon the institute to aid us in preparing country teachers for their work, there is one point which must be insisted upon. The instructors must be persons who know what good teaching is. They must be men and women who have had a professional training, and who have made a study of the conditions and wants of the schools in which the teachers in the institute are to instruct. Every exercise should be full of professional spirit, and every recitation should be a model recitation. It happens many times that the institute is the only opportunity given the teachers to learn by actual experience in what a good school consists. This one point being carefully guarded, the institute may be left to take such form and shape as the conditions of the community may determine. A dead uniformity in institute work even in the same state is to be dreaded.

2. A system of summer or training schools under the care and direction of state authority. Minnesota is making this experiment with assured success. A school of six weeks' duration, if rightly conducted, gives the teacher an opportunity to review, under a competent instructor, branches in which she is deficient. It is a new era in the life of many country teachers to come under the influence of a scholarly and cultured person, if only for a few weeks. Even this minimum of training thus secured cannot but be productive of good to the schools.

3. The state should avail itself of existing educational institutions. It is a fact which every one acquainted with educational progress in the Western States must have observed, that those colleges in which sound scholarship is the basis of work have produced a marked effect upon the schools in the surrounding region. We ought to make use of the preparatory departments of these colleges in fitting teachers. There are in Iowa several private normal schools which carry a two years' course only, and which by arrangements with school officials control the work in the public schools so as to afford the necessary practice in school work. Why should not the state give them material encouragement, if they conform their course of study to the requirements of the state department of instruction and open their work to state inspection? New York, with her system of training schools, claims to be making progress in the direction of preparing teachers for the ungraded schools. These classes are supported by the state, but the amount received depends upon the character of the work done as tested by the final examination. Al-

though New York has exceptional facilities for this work, in a large number of old and well-established academies, there are some features of the plan which are worth consideration in other states.

4. The establishment of small normal schools at moderate expense as fast as possible in different places in the state. Care must be taken that such schools do not take on the name of college, or ape the airs of the university, and that the course of study does not become top-heavy. They must be kept down to the specific work of fitting the country teacher for her work in the country school.

The objective point to be aimed at in each of these plans is to bring at least a modicum of professional training to the doors of the teachers in the ungraded schools. When this is done we can shut the schoolroom door in the face of the untrained teacher.

The committee reach these conclusions:

1. The proper unit of taxation is in no case the district. It should be either the township or the county, as the civil organization of the state may determine.

2. Every community should be required to raise a certain sum for the support of their schools as prerequisite for receiving their share of public money. A certain definite sum should be appropriated to each school out of the state funds, and the remainder should be divided *pro rata*, in accordance with the actual attendance as shown by the certified records of the preceding year, with a discrimination in favor of townships most willing to tax themselves for school purposes.

3. The unit of organization should be the township, unless, as in some of the newer states, the civil unit may render the county preferable. In no case should it be the district.

4. The weakness of the rural schools is in the want of skilled teaching. Therefore, it is the duty, as it is for the interest, of the state to foster and encourage all available means of bringing normal instruction to the doors of the teachers, with a view of rendering it feasible to require some degree of special preparation for the work from every candidate who aspires to the position of teacher in the ungraded schools.

HENRY SABIN, *Chairman.*
JAMES H. CANFIELD,
NATHAN C. SCHAEFFER,
JOHN W. DICKINSON,
J. R. PRESTON,
Committee.

DISCUSSION.

[REPORTED BY GEORGE P. BROWN.]

MR. COOK.—The ungraded school is one of the unsolved educational problems. The town and city schools are working out their destiny in a vigorous and interesting way. A steady and persistent movement is noticeable all along the line. Fairly organized, reasonably well supervised, and with something, at least, in the way of schools for the preparation of their teachers, they inspire a hopeful feeling in those who are studying them with any care.

The ungraded school, however, is not so happily conditioned. In many of the states—and in the older ones, too—these schools cannot claim anything approaching careful organization. They are quite destitute of supervision. The conditions of rural life are often of such a character as to make teaching in country schools appear to be a hardship to those who have grown up in the town. It follows that such fields of work are not regarded as desirable. Attendance is irregular; salaries are low; the terms short; the houses are often poor and ill-equipped; boarding places are unsatisfactory and remote from the schoolhouse, which is to be reached as best it can over muddy roads.

It is not strange, then, that the ungraded schools are suffering, as perhaps no other schools are, from the ignorance and inexperience of their teachers. I believe that these unfortunate facts will not be materially changed until the district school is taken out of its isolation and made a part of the system. This is impossible in that old and outgrown district system to which so many states still cling. It seems to me that the outlook is hopeless unless we move toward the township system, or some other system which provides for a large enough unit to admit of helpful classification. Why should the country boy or girl be denied the privileges of secondary education? A system which looks toward a high school seems to me an American necessity. The existence of these schools will also permit of an extension of training schools for teachers, by utilizing such institutions for elementary pedagogical instruction.

MR. KIEHLE.—The problem of the rural schools is, first, that of organization, which means the transition from the democratic, individualistic form of society, in which every man has liberty to do what pleases himself, to that of the republican, in which authority is delegated and society becomes more and more centralized. The transition is opposed by the people, and herein is the serious obstacle to the accomplishment of that which leads to the organization of a township system. In the meantime it is required that we meet present exigencies and do what we can for the improvement of schools and teachers under present and imperfect systems. To do this in Minnesota, we encourage our high schools by special appropriations of $400 to each school, upon condition that they admit, free of charge, all properly qualified graduates from the common schools of the country about. Besides this, we have a system of summer schools, one month each, about fifty in number, which furnish instruction for about 5,000 of our teachers. For the common schools themselves, provision is made by which as many of the schools as are able to meet the conditions required, in improved teaching and longer terms, shall receive $200 each. In principle, I believe we have begun at the wrong end, and that we should have established a complete township system of schools. Barring that, I believe that we have done the best practicable thing for the improvement of our schools and in preparing public sentiment for an early change to the township system.

Mr. Hinsdale.—No more important subject will be brought before this Council or before the National Educational Association at this present annual meeting than the one that has been so ably presented in the report submitted by Mr. Sabin. There is an ample field and ample material for three reports embracing the subjects that have been presented by the committee. As divided by the committee the subject falls into three divisions: (1) School revenues and their disbursement. (2) School machinery or organization. (3) The supply of properly prepared teachers in sufficient numbers. We have reason to congratulate ourselves, however, that the committee has made a single report covering the whole ground. These three divisions or branches are divisions or branches of the same general subject. They cohere, and cannot be separated if we are to obtain an intelligent view, either of the subject as a whole or of its several divisions. The end or ideal to which all our discussions look is good schools or good education for the youth of the land who are taught in the ungraded schools; but the securing of this end depends immediately and necessarily upon school management or control, and this again is connected with the collection and disbursement of funds. We shall never have as good schools as we ought to have in the rural districts until something like unity and concentration of effort on the part of the managers is secured. Fifteen years ago, at a time when there were about 15,000 persons teaching in the public schools of Ohio, there were about 44,000 school officers who were supposed to be engaged in employing these teachers and in supervising and directing their efforts. It is needless to say to any man who understands the subject that it is impossible to secure, as a rule, good schools under such a system. I therefore indorse all that has been said relative to the importance and necessity of the township unit system. We must not blind ourselves, however, to the fact that the difficulties standing in the way of this are very great. One of these is the indifference, and even positive opposition, of a very large majority of the people who are most immediately concerned. There is a large number of citizens scattered through the states where the district system prevails who do not wish to see the petty school offices abolished or diminished in number. They wish to hold them, or to see their friends hold them. Moreover, many of these persons are interested in the emoluments and patronage which, under the present system, are in effect placed at their disposal. Another fact, and one that does these people more credit, may be mentioned. Many of them—probably a large majority of them—believe that the present system is democratic while the township unit system is oligarchic or aristocratic. They believe in local self-government, and actually suppose, that, in standing up for the present system, they are defending the ancient political institutions of New England, and, in fact, of the Anglo-Saxon race. These are all facts—unquestionable facts. I do not mean to say that they cannot be overcome. They can be. For example, Ohio, that had really made no educational progress for many years, three or four years ago arose out of her sleep and passed the Workman law that has been referred to. Still another thing should be mentioned. The American people as a whole believe that they now have an excellent educational system, excellent schools, excellent education; they believe that they have nothing to learn in this regard from any people in the world, which is very far from being the fact. We have very much to learn from foreign countries. There can be no question that our national self-complacency, our present satisfaction with the education that we have, is an obstacle in our way, not merely in respect to the subject before us but in respect to many other subjects. This obstacle, like the others, can be removed in the same way. That way is to enter at once upon a campaign of education, and then *to press it with vigor;* education, I mean, with respect to these very subjects.

Mr. Brown.—This is a timely report and one of great practical value. It is a companion report to the now celebrated one on correlation of studies. In fact, it discusses the necessary condition that must be supplied if the educational values of studies are to be realized to any considerable degree. But what is the Council going to do about it? I have been a member of this Council for a good many years, and the questions here involved have been considered many times and settled so far as the opinions of the members of the Council are concerned.

Mr. Hinsdale speaks of difficulties in the way of procuring an adoption of the township system in the states where it does not exist, but is it not true that these obstacles would melt away if the people could be warmed by the conviction that township organization is best for their children and is also less expensive than the present independent district system? The thing for us to do, as it seems to me, is to set to work at once to organize a plan of campaign of education of the public upon this matter of a better system of rural schools. The people want the best thing, and a proper system of taxation and distribution of money is the necessary condition of realizing any plan of instruction provided for the children.

Dr. J. Baldwin, Huntsville, Tex.—Since more than one-half our pupils are in our country schools, we are bound to make these schools as efficient as our city schools. The difficulties are enormous. I venture to suggest the creation of a committee of twenty to report on the ungraded school problem. The paper constitutes an admirable basis. What the Ten have done for secondary schools, and the Fifteen for graded schools, the Twenty may do for the rural schools.

The township system is accepted by educators as a basis; but the schools of a township must be cemented into convenient organized groups. Each group must have its central schools, and the teacher of the central must be principal of all the schools of the group. This is vital, as I think the angels could not make our country schools efficient on any other plan. Each central school will become a center of culture and will develop into a limited high school. The teachers of the group work together as an organized faculty.

Mr. Boyden.—I desire to call attention to the district superintendents of Massachusetts as a means for improving the schools of the rural districts. The law of this state provides that two or more towns may unite to form a district which shall have not less than twenty-five nor more than fifty schools. The school committees of the towns which unite to form the district choose the superintendent, and the state pays three-fifths of his support. The first step of the superintendent towards improving the schools under his supervision is to secure the best teachers he can command; the second is to secure a better co-ordination of the school work; and third, the economical expenditure of the school funds. The effect of this system has been a noticeable increase in the demand for trained teachers and a decided improvement in the quality of the work done in the schools. The superintendent improves the course of studies, holds meetings, secures better appropriations for the schools, and increases by these means the public interest in the schools.

Mr. Barnes.—In my opinion, one of the most powerful influences acting upon the rural teachers is the county superintendent. In four years a superintendent gives an educational cast to his teachers; they quickly catch his ideas, his prejudices, his attitudes toward work and study. The same movement which has resulted in such improvement in some of our city systems, through demanding educational leadership in the superintendent, is certain to extend to the office of county superintendent.

ROUND TABLE REPORT TO THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF THE INFLUENCE OF HERBART'S DOCTRINE ON THE COURSE OF STUDY IN THE COMMON SCHOOLS.

BY CHARLES A. McMURRY, NORMAL, ILL.

1. The purpose of this educational movement is to gather into the school course as much of the world's accumulated store of culture as is suited to exert educative influence upon growing children. It is the problem of collecting and arranging the best materials of culture which history, literature, and social and scientific progress have brought to light and stored up.

2. It seeks in our own American history and literature, as expressed in our mother English, the principal center and substance of culture for our common schools. It is not foreign nor exotic, but thoroughly domestic, Anglo-Saxon, American. It is not in search of foreign curiosities. Its geography begins at home and remains long within our own borders. Its natural science deals chiefly, almost entirely, with our native plants and animals and with those natural forces and phenomena with which every child may be made familiar in his own home and neighborhood. By the increased emphasis which it places upon the story of our early national life and historical development, by the more abundant use of the shorter and longer masterpieces of our best American writers, it seeks for a fruitful entrance into the hearts of children of the strong and wholesome influence of our best American culture. It is, therefore, national and patriotic in the true sense.

3. Secondary and supplemental to these American materials are the choicest products of English and European history and literature. The history and literature of America, surprisingly rich as it is, is not complete enough to give the children the full rounded measure of culture which the experience of the world has gathered for the educative enrichment of children. We are compelled to draw upon Europe for some of the best thought materials with which to fill out the course of instruction for the young.

4. It is very evident that our course of study is deeply rooted in the past, that culture and civilization are a product not to be manufactured to order, but a growth and registration in historical and literary forms of racial experience and progress. The reason why we harp so much upon literature and history is because they contain in potent educative solution the rich culture influences which we wish to see redeveloped in every child. Moral and social culture, with all their

humanizing influence, are contained in the choicest literature of America and Europe. Here are the ideals of life, revealed in their supreme strength and beauty. Here are the examples of men and women who lift and inspire. Here are revealed the moral qualities which should form the backbone of character.

5. If the course of study as a whole is thought of as a rope or cable, one of the important strands is a series of elementary science lessons stretching through all the grades. This fully accords with the immense influence upon human life which scientific progress has already attained. Herbartian pedagogy is in this respect thoroughly modern, and stands abreast of the requirement that education shall equip a child to live up to his present opportunities, and to make use of the fund of scientific knowledge.

6. This educational movement includes such a mastery of the English language and of elementary mathematics as our schools have long aimed at, but only partially realized. It suggests no great change in the scope of these studies. They are the necessary implements of culture and supply the forms of thought. But they should not be wholly isolated from the other studies, nor their separate disciplinary value estimated so highly as of old. The ideals, inspirations, and original sources of energy are in literature, history, and natural science. They are like deep fountains which spring from unfailing sources of supply.

7. This educational doctrine includes the effort to grasp all the studies and influences of the school course in one organized unit of influence, to so relate and combine the different forms of school discipline as to centralize and strengthen their combined effect.

8. In addition to this effort to lay out the best school course and to harmonize its various studies, there has been a strong, persistent, and practical effort to systematize the method of instruction, to find a set of principles sufficiently positive and definite for a common platform upon which teachers may stand and yet sufficiently elastic to adapt it to the variety of studies and to the individuality of teachers.

A somewhat full course of study for first and second grade is given in the "First Year Book of the Herbart Society for the Scientific Study of Teaching."

Leaving out arithmetic and language, which are similar to the usual course, a brief suggestive outline for fourth, fifth, and sixth grades is appended:

FOURTH GRADE.

HISTORY.

Thirteen stories of pioneer life in the Mississippi Valley: Marquette, La Salle, Lincoln, Clark, etc.

GEOGRAPHY.

Twenty important topics in the Mississippi Valley. The Illinois river, the corn and wheat regions, forest belts, coal fields, etc.

READING.

"The Wonder Book."
Kingsley's "Greek Heroes."
"Tales from Spenser."
"Hiawatha."
"Stories of the Old World."

NATURAL SCIENCE.

The forest trees.
Hardwoods: Maple, oak, hickory.
Evergreen: Pine, etc.
Wild animals of Mississippi Valley: Deer, bear, beaver.
The formation of coal.

FIFTH GRADE.

HISTORY.

Pioneer explorers.
Twelve stories of Champlain, Hudson, Raleigh, Columbus, Smith, Cortes, Washington, etc.

GEOGRAPHY.

The Eastern States and North America.
Twenty-five important topics, as: The White Mountains, Hudson River, New York City, Washington, etc.

READING.

Higginson's "American Explorers."
"Tales from English History."
"Lays of Ancient Rome."
"Black Beauty."

NATURAL SCIENCE.

Butterflies, bees and other insects.
Grasses.
Physical experiments, pumps, engines, compass, thermometer, barometer.
Weather study.

SIXTH GRADE.

HISTORY.

The colonial period in Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, Virginia, Pennsylvania.
French and Indian Wars.

GEOGRAPHY.

Countries of Europe and colonial possessions. Twenty-five important topics.

READING.

"Grandfather's Chair."
"The Sketch Book."
"Miles Standish."
"Tales of a Grandfather."
"Birds and Bees."
"Autobiography of Benjamin Franklin."

NATURAL SCIENCE.

The robin, thrush, owl, etc.
The frog, crayfish.
Turtle, fishes.
Experiments in combustion, the lamp, stove, etc.

DISCUSSION.

Mr. McMurry.—Our purpose is to discuss and raise questions on this paper. Questions will therefore be readily listened to at any point, and as far as possible satisfactory answers attempted. One of the chief questions asked about education is, What can it do to prepare children for the civilization—for the social order—in which they are to live? The counter question of equal importance is. What does civilization itself furnish? What has the past worked out and delivered to us, with which to prepare the children for the social state? One of our first duties, then, is to find out and gather up the culture materials of the past with which to educate children for the future.

Mr. Tarbell.—In what sense do you use the words "principal center and substance of culture?"

Mr. McMurry.—The choicest materials of culture—those which contribute to high ideals and to the strengthening of moral character—may be called the principal center and substance of culture. The American people began upon a very high level. Many of the people who first settled this country and laid the basis for our laws and institutions were far above the average of even civilized peoples in their moral and political standards. If we stop to trace the influence of the Puritans in politics, religion, and literature, we shall find that it has penetrated to the very marrow of our national life, and whatever was best and most enduring was directly owing to it. There was salt enough in the Puritans to salt a nation, and many of our best ideals to-day are derived directly from them. America is a young country compared with the societies of Europe, and it might be supposed that educative influences of the best sort had not been stored up in the brief period of our development; but even in this short time our country has passed through great and stirring epochs, the history of which, as worked out by our best authors in prose and verse, not only furnishes the children with plenty to read and think about but gives also that moral stimulus and character development which make the essential foundation of culture. Materials furnished by this history are mentally nutritious, and furnish the minds of children with their appropriate food. By noticing the fourth section of this report, it is seen that the prevailing idea is to use the complete masterpieces of American literature to teach American history, literature, and life.

Mr. Williams.—What advantage has this literature, selected and arranged, over the reading found in the reading-book?

Mr. McMurry.—The purpose of the Herbartians is to present complete masterpieces in their full force — not fragments and extracts, however choice in themselves. A child that has read "Hiawatha," or the "Sketch Book," or Hawthorne's stories, complete, has gained much greater benefit than he could by reading short, scrappy selections. A single complete masterpiece, like "Evangeline," contains more culture in its make-up that three or four extracts or fragments which, taken together, contain as much reading matter as "Evangeline." A longer complete work of literature gives greater time for the interest of the pupil to accumulate, and it gives the author a chance to make a strong and permanent impression upon the reader.

The question was raised whether the reading laid out for the fourth grade, such as Hawthorne's "Wonder Book," Kingsley's "Greek Heroes," etc., would not *take the child* entirely away from home and native land; that is was not domestic. *not American.*

Mr. McMurry.—There is a much closer connection between these Greek stories and our American history stories than appears at first sight. The Greek stories are personal and heroic, and the spirit that breathes in them is closely akin to the spirit and exploits of our pioneer explorers. Besides, the classic stories of Europe belong as much to us as to the European nations. They are also simpler and better adapted to children in the third grade than our American history stories. We use these Greek stories for oral narrative and presentation in third grade, and read them in the fourth grade.

Dr. Hinsdale.-Why do you speak of exactly thirteen stories in the fourth grade?

Mr. McMurry.—The stories, of course, need not be limited to any particular number, but the number thirteen expressed here simply indicates a particular collection of stories of the Mississippi Valley used in a few of our schools.

There followed a brisk discussion of the thirteen explorers of the Mississippi Valley.

Mr. Jones asked why they were taken before the colonial explorers—why leave out the New England stories.

Mr. McMurry.—It seems appropriate for the children of the Mississippi Valley to begin their study of history with stories of the Mississippi Valley; just as it is appropriate for children of New England to begin with the stories of New England. The idea is to begin at home, with the persons for whom our own towns and rivers were named, like Marquette and Joliet. If the lives of these men are spirited, heroic, and interesting, they will answer our purpose. I would defend the selection of the pioneer stories of the Mississippi Valley because the quality of the stories is the best. New England has no better stories with which to awaken and stimulate the minds of children than has the Mississippi Valley. The stories of Marquette, La Salle, and Lincoln are as choice and high-spirited as any stories of our country. And no other country has any better stories, if as good. Besides this, the majority of American children already live in the Mississippi Valley, if we include the lake states in this region. The story of George Rogers Clark is remarkably heroic and stirring. He showed as much iron strength of character, as much grit and spirit, as any man of the Revolution. The story of Fremont is, in some respects, as good as that of Columbus, and is much simpler; for the story of Columbus involves different nations, continents, oceans, and the world-whole. The history and geography of the Mississippi Valley go hand-in-hand, as is indicated by the course of study. It is not intended that we should neglect the stories of the East, but use them in the fifth grade. In one respect it makes very little difference where we begin our pioneer history stories. Pioneer life and exploration are the same in their spirit, whether we begin with Columbus or Fremont. The chronology of these pioneer biographies is of very little importance in the fourth and fifth grades.

Miss Nicholson asked if the character of George Rogers Clark was not a questionable one for children to study. His life had serious flaws.

Mr. McMurry.—Clark's later life showed great weaknesses and faults; but that part of his early life which is included in the story is remarkably vigorous and interesting, as well as high-spirited. But the question, after all, may be fairly asked whether Clark's character is one that ought to be held up to children.

The question was asked whether boys are to be trained to be citizens of America rather than of the world, as the Romans trained children to be citizens of Rome; or is the Greek idea right, or training boys to be men.

MR. MCMURRY.—What we need in education is to select, first, what is purest and best in our own national material—what has been given us from our own past. Was it Emerson or Thoreau who said, that a man could not be a true citizen until he voted and paid taxes in his own township? [Some one suggested that it could not have been Thoreau, as he wouldn't vote or pay taxes.] It is better to begin at home, and grow up under the full influence of the family, neighborhood, and the state, and especially of our Christian civilization. No matter what is done the child will grow up under the full measure of the influence of his environment and of the civilization in which he lives. The best we can do, therefore, is to utilize the best of our surroundings and the choicest of our historical and literary materials, and in this way we shall get the best out of our present surroundings and past development.

MR. BALDWIN.—What is the true idea of an Herbartian regarding the object sought?

MR. SOLDAN.—What is Herbartian, in the sense given, is the principle involved, and not the material. We may easily differ regarding the material, and not thus interfere with the principle involved.

The second question is whether the child is educated for any purpose outside himself. Should Paul be educated for Dombey & Son, and not for Paul himself? Herbart says the child must be educated for himself. His view has been unfortunately explained as being for the civilization around him and for which he acts. The child must be brought up to feel the heart-beats of the noblest life that is within his possibility. He must attain such a condition as to lead (1) to a good life with others, (2) to a useful life with others, and (3) to a happy life with others. Is not this what Herbart means and his followers claim?

MR. MCMURRY.—I think Mr. Soldan is right, as I understand him; and yet Herbart believes that what men have thought and felt and written are among the greatest of all educative agencies, and supply the ideals for future development.

MR. LUKENS asked the question whether the course of study suggested involved the theory of the "culture epochs." Nothing had been said on this point, either in the paper or in the discussion.

MR. MCMURRY.—In making out this outline of a course of study, I have had in mind the idea of the "culture epochs;" that is, the theory that children develop as the race has developed, by a not very clear process; and, that, at certain ages of child life, they are in sympathy with literature belonging to certain corresponding epochs of race growth. I have chosen the work of the grades, to some extent, at least, under the suggestion of this theory. Nothing, however, has been specifically stated on this point in the paper or discussion.

MR. LUKENS asked further what was the attitude of the Herbartians to the subject of child study.

MR. MCMURRY said, that, while not laying any claim to expert knowledge in the field of child study, he thought there were important lines of sympathy and co-operation between the Herbartians and scientific students of child study. The experiments along the lines of fatigue, physical reactions and measurements, hygiene, etc., have already supplied much useful help to teachers. Both schools believe in a more careful, and sympathetic, and individual study of children. The doctrine of apperception brings the Herbartians into very close touch with the efforts of all those engaged in child study.

MR. MARBLE. —Why in the fourth grade use foreign and ancient literature?

Mr. McMurry.—There does not seem to be too much opportunity given to foreign history in the Herbartian scheme. Much of the best materials for the earlier grades must come from Europe, as our own history and literature are deficient in these.

The question was again raised whether we should not consider, first of all, the child's own needs and possibilities, and educate him for complete and all-round manhood rather than for the perhaps narrow civilization in which he lives. Why should we impose our civilization on a child? Why not let him be free to develop what is in him? Child study seems thus broader and more universal as a basis.

Mr. Cook.—Do we not use Greek to avoid provincialism?

Mr. Hinsdale.—The Greek is the type of the universal; the Roman is more narrow. Were not both of them national in culture? Is it not simply a question of relativity? The two views—that of child study and the historical of Herbart—are complementary, and does not much depend upon the emphasis placed on one or the other?

Mr. Cook.—Child study does not interfere with the application of the Herbartian principles in making a course of study. We must nourish the child with the materials of the civilization. The two standpoints are not antagonistic.

Mr McMurry.—Child study should certainly have a full measure of recognition. On the one side, it keeps us close to childen and to the persistent needs and difficulties that pervade education. On the other side, the history, literature, and other culture products of the past supply the materials of instruction. They supply, also, the great inspiring ideals of political, social, and religious life which have been so potent in educational progress. We usually forget the powerful and pervading influence of the past upon us. We are constantly re-thinking its thoughts and imitating its acts. If we could blot out these historical influences and shut ourselves off from the ideas and examples of such men as Longfellow, Washington, Milton, the Puritans, etc.; if we could actually eliminate the influences of the past upon our present life, we should be face to face with blank barbarism.

Even in the education of children, child study is very narrow in its suggestiveness. There is much greater variety and depth of suggestiveness in this history of education in different countries and in the works of classic writers on education than in a whole school of people devoted to child study in a purely experimental way. What reason have you to think, friends, that, from your little child study, you can outweigh what has been established by our seers and prophets? Child study has its well-earned place and value, but it is no substitute for the best influences of past civilization.

For lack of time the discussion covered only the first part of the report. The place of natural science in the course of study could not be treated.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON PEDAGOGICS.—THE LAWS OF MENTAL CONGRUENCE AND ENERGY APPLIED TO SOME PEDAGOGICAL PROBLEMS.

BY B. A. HINSDALE, CHAIRMAN.

The nouns congruence and congruity, and the adjectives congruent and congruous, are derived from the Latin verb *congruere*, which means to come together with something, and so to agree. The nouns mean suitableness, appropriateness, consistency, agreement, coincidence, correspondence, fitness, harmony, and their adjectives mean pertaining to or having this quality. The words have respect to relations, and they are favorites with those philosophers who place virtue in the fitness of things. For men to render obedience to God, or for a son to honor his father, is said to be congruous to the light of reason. Incongruence and incongruous are the negatives of these words. Congruence may be affirmed of physical things alone, or of psychic things alone, or of physical and psychic things taken together. The element of time is involved. Congruence is simultaneous or successive. If successive activities are congruous, the first flows naturally into the second; they blend. The first leaves the body or the mind, as the case may be, in a suitable frame to enter upon the second. Particular attention may be directed to this point, because the argument of this paper will turn in large part upon the relations of successive psychic states.

I. *Bodily Activities as Congruous or Incongruous.*—It is obvious that congruence must be affirmed of some physical activities, incongruence of others. No reference is here made to organic functions. Walking is a good preparation for leaping, wielding a hammer for shoving a plane. But violent exercise disqualifies the muscles or nerves for any activity that requires careful handling or delicate touch. The surgeon could not qualify himself for a difficult operation by first engaging in the vigorous exercises of the gymnasium, nor the painter fit himself for putting the last touches to a fine picture by crushing stones with a sledge. No more does the skillful teacher place the writing or the drawing lesson just after the school recess. We need not dwell upon the laws that underlie these facts further than to say that congruent exercises appear to involve, in whole or part, similar co-ordinations of the nerves and muscles and similar physical tones.

II. *Physiological and Psychological States as Congruous and Incongruous.*—That certain correlations exist between the body and the mind is too plain to be disputed; also, certain oppositions or antagonisms.

Mental power and tone depend upon physical power and tone, while states of mind influence states of body. Repose of body conduces to reflection, meditation, or musing. Strong physical exercise tends to exclude mental exercise. Still there are obvious limits to these effects. The Greek laid stress upon maintaining balance or proportion between the body and the soul, but their great athletes and their great writers or orators were different classes of persons. Aristotle has left two striking testimonies relative to this subject.[*] "The evil of excessive training in early years is strikingly proved by the example of the Olympic victors; for not more than two or three of them have gained a prize both as boys and as men. Their early training and severe gymnastic exercises exhausted their constitutions." "Men ought not to labor at the same time with their minds and with their bodies, for the two kinds of labor are opposed to one another; the labor of the body impedes the mind, and the labor of the mind the body." This is at least measurably true, and the truth has important pedagogical applications.

III. *The Primary Psychic Elements as Congruous or Incongruous.*—Cognition, feeling, and will are present in every fully developed state of consciousness. Dr. Dewey[†] calls them "the three aspects which every consciousness presents, according to the light in which it is considered; whether as giving information, as affecting the self in a painful or pleasurable way, or as manifesting an activity of self. But there is still another connection. Just as in the organic body, the process of digestion cannot go on without that of circulation, and both require respiration and nerve action, which in turn are dependent upon the other processes, so, in the organic mind, knowledge is not possible without feeling and will, and neither of these without the other." This is very well as far as it goes. It does not, of course, tell us whether the three elements are all present in the first, or simplest, state of consciousness.

The further relations of the three elements are of the greatest interest, and must be considered more carefully. Two facts are very observable. One is, that up to a certain point the three elements vary directly; the other is, that beyond this point they vary inversely. Until the mental current reaches a given height, cognition, feeling, and will swell together. That point reached, any one of the three must swell at the cost of one or both the others. Höffding, who does not, however, generalize them into a single law, presents these interesting facts:

[‡] "Self-observation reveals at most only an approximation to a state in which all cognitive elements have vanished. Such an

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[*] "The Politics" (Jowett's translation), VIII., 4.
[†] "Psychology," pp. 17, 18.
[‡] "Outlines of Psychology" (translated by Mary E. Lowndes), pp. 98, 99.

proximation is reached the more the strength of the feeling element increases. Cognition and feeling must stand in inverse relation to one another; the more strongly the one is manifested the less the strength at the command of the other. An overwhelming joy or sorrow may drive out all ideation, all recollection; but an ecstatic condition of this kind stands on the margin of consciousness. * * *

"It is only in the course of psychological development that differentiation between feeling and will makes its appearance. There comes to be an ever-greater contrast between the two ways in which inner movement finds a vent. The psychological importance of the law of persistence of energy is here seen plainly; for the more energy an individual expends on the one kind of reaction the less can be expended on the other. This truth is strikingly illustrated in Saxo's well-known tale of the different effect which the news of the murder of Ragner Lodbrog produced on his sons. He in whom the emotion was weakest has the greatest energy for action."

But of the writers on this subject whom I have consulted Dr. Sully does it the fullest justice. Two paragraphs may be quoted:

[*] "These three kinds of mental state are, in general, clearly marked off from one another. A child in a state of strong emotional excitement contrasts with a child calmly thinking about something, or another child exerting his active powers in doing something. If we take any one of these aspects of mind in a well-marked form, we see that it is opposed to the other aspects. Thus, strong feeling is opposed to and precludes at the time calm thinking (recollecting, reasoning), as well as regulated action (will). Similarly, the intellectual state of remembering or reasoning is opposed to feeling or to doing. The mind cannot exhibit each kind of phenomenon in a marked degree at the same time.

"This opposition may be seen in another way. If we compare not different states of the same mind, but different minds as a whole, we often find now one kind of mental state or operation, now another, in the ascendant. Minds marked by much feeling (sensitive, emotional natures) commonly manifest less of the intellectual and volitional aspects or properties. Similarly, minds of a high degree of intellectual capability (inquiring or inquisitive minds), or of much active endowment (active minds), are, as a rule, relatively weak in the other kinds of endowment."

From the premises before us two or three important pedagogical rules are derived. One is that a gentle glow or wave of pleasurable feeling should play over the mind of the individual pupil and through the school. The intellect thrives best in a suitable emotional climate, *Courage, hopefulness*, appreciation, rather than their opposites should temper the atmosphere of the schoolroom. Optimism is more congenial to the normal mind than pessimism. Another rule is, that pupils should be protected against strongly excited feeling, no matter whether the feeling is their own or that of another into which they enter through sympathy. The wheels of the intellect, so to speak, will not revolve freely in a flood of turbulent emotion. No gusts of anger, cyclones of passion, or waves of sympathetic impulse in the school! Especially is the feeling that the teacher is unjust very harmful to the pupil. No immediate reference is here made to morals. "Nothing retards the acquirement of the power of directing the intellectual processes," says Dr. Carpenter, in a striking passage, "so much as the emotional disturbance which the feeling of injustice provokes." * Again, genuine interest may reach too high a pitch. When Sir Isaac Newton saw that the train of reasoning which he had so long been following would establish his working hypothesis, his emotions would not allow him to continue, and he was obliged to hand his manuscripts over to a friend to complete the work.

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[*] "*Outlines of Psychology*," pp. 21, 22.

IV. *The Intellectual Activities as Congruous and Incongruous.*—Here we reach the application of the law of congruity to education that, considered from the point of view of the school, is the most important of all. So much will be admitted by those at least who regard teaching as the main function of the school. We must, therefore, proceed more slowly with this division of the subject. Still, it is not proposed to deal in detail with the nature or the relations of the cognitive elements. These subjects are treated in every text-book of psychology; and, although much of the treatment may be false, the commonly accepted views will answer the present purpose.

1. Here, as in the case of cognition, feeling, and will, we observe both mutual opposition and reciprocal aid. Up to a certain point cognitive elements grow together; beyond that point, the greater the energy expended on one kind of reaction the less can be expended on another kind. The complete action of perception involves memory; but energetic observation is at the expense of memory, while intense memory, on the other hand, tends to withdraw attention from surrounding objects. The imagination stimulates the thought processes until a point is reached where it assumes the ascendant and reflection retires into the background. Imagination and reflection, both in an excited state, cannot dwell together. Sense-perception furnishes the logical faculties needed materials; still, become too obtrusive, sense-perception is fatal to thought. Men or peoples who live in the senses do not live in the reason, and *vice versa.*

This point is pedagogically so important that we may well dwell upon it a little longer. The pedagogical realists make the sense-elements of knowledge prominent in the school. Originating as a reaction from excessive devotion to the printed page, the realistic movement has been most fruitful of good results. With it are identified the great names of Comenius and Pestalozzi. To it we are indebted for the enlargement of science-teaching and the extended use of object-lessons and objective methods of instruction. At the same time, the true limits of realism are soon reached. Knowledge begins with the senses, but does not end with the senses. Properly speaking, a developing mind soon leaves the senses behind. Sensation is but a coarse form of feeling, and is subject to the same law. An excess of sense-elements in the mind smothers the rational elements. A blinding flash of lightning or a deafening peal of thunder arrests the higher mental activities; while less powerful sense-impressions exercise a more lasting, if a less intense, effect. The great scientific discoveries have not been made in immediate contact with nature, but in the retirement of the study. Nor is time the only element that is here involved; when immediate contact exists and is vital, nature may overpower the mind. It has been said that the machine may be lost to the mind in its parts, or the picture in the colors that compose it. Equally may the universe be lost in the multitude of the stars. Concentrated attention upon the technique of an art retards the development of its higher elements. A house-builder is not likely to excel as an architect; the practical elements of the trade exclude the ideal elements that are essential to the profession. On this basis Aristotle's prejudice against useful studies rested, as is evident from the following passage:

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* *"Mental Physiology,"* pp. 134, 135.

[*] "There can be no doubt that children should be taught those useful things which are really necessary, but not all things, for occupations are divided into liberal and illiberal; and to young children should be imparted only such kinds of knowledge as will be useful to them without vulgarizing them. And any occupation, art, or science which makes the body, or soul, or mind of the freeman less fit for the practice or exercise of virtue is vulgar; wherefore we call those arts vulgar which tend to deform the body, and likewise all paid employments, for they absorb and degrade the mind."

Abstract thinking—the thinking of relations and unities—which is the highest force of thought, is possible only when the mind has been unsensed or dematerialized. Whether instruction in physics should begin with theory or experiment is a mooted question. Begin where the teacher may, he has not taught the subject until he has taught those logical elements that give it its character. Still more, an excess of brilliant experiments may hinder rather than hasten the work. Experiments are like examples, of which it has been said:

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[*] "The Politics," VIII., 2

> Examples may be heaped until they hide
> The rules that they were made to render plain.

2. The practical application of the principles of congruence to teaching involves the selection and grouping of studies. It brings before us the large subject to which the terms correlation, co-ordination, organization, and concentration of studies have been somewhat indiscriminately applied. It is not proposed to discuss these terms in this report, or even the subject itself, save as it involves fundamental principles. But to do even as much as this makes it necessary to state the principal laws relating to mental energy. They are the following:

(a) When any stimulus, as a sense object, an idea, or a lesson, is applied to the mind, the mind is not at once fully energized, but some time must elapse before it swells to the maximum of power.

(b) This maximum of power continues for a time, or, in the language of science, mental energy tends to persist.

(c) The maximum cannot, however, be infinitely maintained. On the contrary, when the mental current reaches what may be called the fatigue point, it begins to fall off in volume, but the fall is less rapid than the previous rise. Still, the volume can be temporarily renewed, in part or in whole, by the application of a stronger stimulus.

(d) An interruption of the mental current retards the energizing process, or frustrates the reaching of the maximum of power. Such interruption is caused by the introduction of incongruous materials. If the incongruity be of a marked character, the mind will come to a state of rest, or a new current flowing from a new center will be started.

(e) Through repetition the energizing process becomes easier and more rapid. Repeated activity in the same direction tends to groove the mind, or, to change the figure, the stream of activity digs out for itself a permanent channel of discharge.

(f) Mental power is of two kinds, specific and generic. In other words, the power that is generated in any activity can be fully used again in the same kind of activity, but only partly used in other kinds —the measure of the difference being the relative unlikeness of the two activities.

(g) Mental fatigue, like mental power, is also specific or generic. The mind may need rest from a certain kind of activity, or it may need rest from all kinds, or from all energetic kinds.

These psychic laws have their analogues in physical laws. The physiological psychologists find their causes in nerve and brain action, the explanation going back to the familiar functions of waste and repair. Moreover, these laws cannot be stated in quantitative terms. No one can tell, in general, how long it takes fully to energize a mind at a given time, or how far removed the fatigue point is from the initial point of greatest energy. Very much depends upon age, discipline, physical health, the character of the stimulus, and other circumstances. As a rule, the periods lengthen as the individual passes from childhood to youth and from youth to manhood. That is, a man's mental force is less quickly aroused and mobilized than a child's, and it tends to persist much longer.

3. From the laws of congruence and energy we derive some important rules of teaching. While these are applicable to all grades of teaching, they are particularly important in relation to primary teaching. The principal of these rules may be formulated as follows:

(a) Sufficient time must be allowed the pupil for him to collect his energies, to mobilize his forces. Slow and halting recitations tend to dullness of mind, while rapid recitations develop either confusion or shallowness. There must be a certain singleness or isolation of the fact or idea. "The child must be accustomed to give one impression time to take root," says Radestock,[*] "and not follow it immediately by a corresponding action, that it may not pass away with that action into air." The same writer quotes the following from Lazarus with approval: "Deep thinking requires time; it is therefore a great pedagogical mistake if teachers, as is now generally done, urge their pupils to answer rapidly, and praise those who immediately have an answer ready. This causes everything to be lowered to a mere effort of mechanical memory. The pupil should be given time for individual contemplation, for deep and energetic thought labor." This does not imply that lessons are not to be well prepared and subjects well thought out beforehand. When the fullest preparation has been made, there is still opportunity for energetic thought at the time of the recitation.

(b) The pupil should be held to the same subject as long as the mental current flows with full volume. To no new subject can all the energy that has been aroused by any activity be transferred, and to some subjects none whatever. Unnecessary changes from subject to subject, or from lesson to lesson, involve the dissipitation and consequent loss of both time and power, the amount of which will depend in great part upon the relative congruity or incongruity of the different subjects or activities. More power can be transferred from Latin to Greek than from French to German. This is Dr. Bain's physiological explanation of the rule laid down: [†] "We know well enough that the nervous currents, when strongly aroused in any direction, tend to persist for some time. In the act of learning, this persistence will count in stamping a new impression; while part of the effect of a lesson must be lost in hurrying without a moment's break to something new, even although the change is of the nature of relief."

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[*] *"Habit,"* p. 36.
[†] *"John Stuart Mill,"* p. 23.

(c) Advantage should be taken of favoring times to do, or to secure the doing of, certain kinds of work. The more difficult subjects should be pursued by a pupil or student when both body and mind are fresh and vigorous. It is the flood-tide, not the ebb-tide, that brings the great ships up to the dock.

(d) Before the pupil reaches the fatigue point, the teacher should permit him either to take up another subject or to drop study for the time altogether. Persistent application on a stream of falling energy involves waste of time and power, and may lead to serious results. To some extent, no doubt, the needed relief can be had through a change of method.

(e) Whether the pupil should take up a new study, or drop all study for the time, depends upon the kind of fatigue that has supervened. Diminished power for one activity is not diminished power for all activities. Thus, a pupil who has studied arithmetic or algebra as long as it is profitable to-day, will take up geography or history with interest, and *vice versa*. To a degree studies are like gases; they are vacuums one to another. As a jar that is already filled with hydrogen gas will still hold as much carbolic acid gas as a jar of the same size that is empty, so a pupil that is satisfied for the present with mathematics will pursue literature with interest and profit.

(f) The school course of study should be made up with constant reference to the psychic laws that have been laid down. Into the question how far psychology and how far environment should control the educational ideal, we need not enter. No one denies that psychology must largely influence the choice of studies, and almost wholly control their co-ordination.

(g) The working program of the school, in particular, should be made up with reference to the same principles.

(h) The principle of congruence and its limitations have important applications to elective studies in colleges and universities. In filling out election blanks, it is believed students who are left wholly to themselves often choose studies that make strange bedfellows. Nor is this surprising; the criteria that should govern the choice are very subtle and intricate. This topic will come before us again.

The arguments on which the three last rules rest are practically the same. They involve the important subject of concentration. Congruent studies re-enforce one another with respect to both content and mental aptitude. One subject involves other subjects. The physicist must be a mathematician, the Latin scholar must know something of Greek, the historian must be acquainted with politics and political economy. For a time depth and breadth vary directly; after that indirectly. But in the absolute sense a specialist is an impossibility. An astronomer cannot study the moon by itself, or a physiologist the eye. No one object or subject can be understood when taken alone: it is related to other objects, it is a part of the universe. Still, to be effective the mind must be grooved, and this involves the repetition of the same act and of similar acts. Once more, if the practical requirements of the school compel a study to be discontinued before the fatigue point is reached, thus departing from the ideal, then some related subject may be taken up, because more of the power that has been accumulated can be transferred to a related than to an unrelated subject. And still the distance of the fatigue-point must be considered.

4. But congruence alone must not dictate the course of study, the daily school program, or the student's elections. Fortunately, there may be power for one subject when there is none for another subject. We have spoken of the mind under the similitude of a stream or current. The fact is, however, that the mind is less like a river from which you may take water for any purpose, than it is like a bank where the total amount of money that is on deposit is divided among many different accounts, and is subject to check by as many different persons. This is due to specialization of powers—to the difference between specific and generic force. The one-study college is, therefore, just as unphilosophical as those schools that break the work hours up into small crumbs of time. Thus the fundamental laws of mental energy, or of interest if you will, impose a veto upon an exaggerated form of concentration.

It is further to be observed that concentration is a relative term, at best. No wise teacher proposes to limit the pupil to a single study or class of exercises. To do so would in reality involve the dogma of formal discipline in its extreme form. Another remark is, that concentration in the primary school may be overdone as easily as specialization in the higher school. It has been shown time and again that the child may be over-taught certain subjects. His impressible mind may be so deeply and narrowly grooved that it can never be broadly cultivated. It become indurated, as it were. This result may be due in part to the intensity of the activity, but it is more due to its persistence. As the mind matures, there is less and less need of caution on this point. The pupil gets farther and farther away from the mechanical elements of knowledge, becomes more and more occupied with the higher logical elements, and so is less responsive to narrowing influences. While the child's activities must be duly limited, his full development still calls for a profusion of educational material.

At this point some very practical questions confront the teacher and superintendent. How long should a pupil be kept at work on the same subject? How much work should he do in one school-day? How frequently should he change from one subject to another? How many studies should he have? No man can answer these questions in formulæ; the teacher or superintendent must answer them as they arise, and to do so he will find his best observation and judgment seriously taxed. It may well be doubted whether, measurably, the common schools are not now sacrificing the best results to swollen programs and short exercises. The question is one that the superintendent should study with a transcript of the facts that have been stated in one hand, and his course of study and time-table in the other. There is no reasonable doubt that much evil in the school that is now charged to the account of overwork should rather be charged to work done in the wrong way.

5. The psychic facts to which the names of congruence and energy have been given demand fuller investigation than they have hitherto received. It is well known that the school programs, both in respect to the co-ordination of subjects and the length of exercises, commonly rest upon a rude empirical basis. The factors that control those who make them appear to be the necessities of the school, real or supposed, tradition, and individual experience. This empiricism is not surprising, considering the meager attention that psychologists and pedagogists have given to the principles that underlie good school programs. Very little attention has been given to the time elements involved in psychic energy as applied to school exercises. When three heavy subjects appear upon the program for the day—subjects demanding the fixation of the attention—you will not indeed commonly find them all crowded into the same session; but that is about as far as the attempt to accommodate the work to the pupil's ability in this regard has been carried. Such delicate questions as these occur: How much time elapses between the application of different stimuli to the child mind at different ages and the development of maximum psychic power? How long is the interval between such maximum and the fatigue point? In respect to the swelling of the mental current to its full volume, and in respect to its persistence, how much depends upon the pupil's age? How much upon the peculiar stimuli at different ages? And how much upon the teacher's skill? It is easy to translate these questions into the practical interests of the school. They cannot be answered without much careful observation and collaboration of facts. The whole subject should enlist the serious attention of students of child study, both under its physiological and psychological aspects, and it is earnestly recommended to their attention.

6. The correlation of the teacher and the text-book, if one be used, demands something more than passing attention. Dr. Bain has said that undoubtedly the best of all ways to learn anything is to have a competent teacher "dole out a fixed quantity of matter every day, just sufficient to be taken in and no more; the pupils to apply themselves to the matter so imparted, and to nothing else." The singleness of aim is favorable, he urges, to the greatest rapidity of acquirement; defects should be left out of account until one thread of ideas is firmly set in the mind. Still he admits that not unfrequently, and not improperly, the teacher has a text-book to aid him in his work. * "To make this a help and not a hindrance demands the greatest delicacy, since the pupil must be kept in one single line of thought, and never be required to comprehend upon the same point conflicting or varying statements. Even the footnotes may have to be disregarded in the first instance, since they act like a second author, and so keep up an irritating friction."

Nothing else is so essential to successful elementary teaching as unity or congruence of subject-matter. Dr. Bain does not exaggerate the value of the "one thread of ideas," or the "one single line of thought." His scruple about footnotes even is often justified. These more definite rules will determine the teacher's general relations to the text-book.

(a) If the book is the main source of instruction, the teacher should teach the book; that is, the matter of the book. If footnotes tend to confuse, what shall be said of the teacher who takes an independent line from the beginning? No wise teacher certainly would be so absurd as to give a pupil who is just beginning a new subject two text-books. A good Sunday-school teacher, dealing with the life of Jesus in a primary class, would not try to follow all the Gospels, or even two of them, at the same time; rather than do that, it would be better to select his material here and there and to blend them in a new gospel of his own. The teacher may teach something more or something less than the book teaches on a single point, but nothing different or contradictory.

(b) The teacher should also follow the methods of presentation that the book employs. Nothing could be more absurd than for a teacher who has assigned to a class a book lesson that is presented inductively, to go ahead and teach it deductively.

(c) The teacher should study to make the first presentation of a lesson successful. If two or more presentations are required, besides the loss of time, the mind is left in a littered-up condition that is confusing. This is the reason why it is often more difficult to teach a

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* *"Practical Essays,"* pp. 218, 219.

subject well to a pupil to whom it has been imperfectly taught than to a person to whom it is wholly unknown.

(d) If the subject-matter of the book or of a single lesson is radically bad, or the method decidedly faulty, the book or lesson should be laid aside altogether. If only certain portions are objectionable, or certain methods of presentation, the teacher should not assign these to be studied, but should teach such subjects *de novo*. This observation assumes that the teacher is able to do so.

(e) The wise teacher will not present a subject in more than one way unless the first way has failed. It is folly to explain the division of a fraction by a fraction in a second way if the first explanation has been understood. The same remark will apply to casting interest and to many other subjects. It is well enough for the author of an arithmetic to give two or more methods of performing these operations, thus giving the teacher an option; but the teacher should choose the method which he thinks best adapted to his purpose, and then adhere to it. At the stage of teaching now supposed, never give more than one definition or rule on a single point. Superfluous illustrations not only do no good, but they do positive harm, begetting confusion worse confounded.

It will be understood that these rules relative to the use of the text-book apply to the early stages in teaching particularly, and that they would require very important modifications if they are to be applied to the advanced, rational, or critical stage of education. Narrow teaching must come before broad teaching. In time the pupil, if rightly handled, will get out of his single line of thought; will be able to deal with subjects; can criticise and weigh different definitions, contradictory views and rules, and opposing opinions; can use a variety of books, compare authorities, and employ different methods of procedure. Thus Dr. Bain recommends that in geometry the pupil should be held strictly to Euclid until he has become thoroughly at home on the main ideas and leading propositions; then he is safe in dipping into other manuals and comparing the differences of treatment, and in widening his knowledge by additional theorems and by various modes of demonstration. But the time when all this can be done will not be hastened by pushing the pupil forward prematurely. The teacher who inundates the pupil with all kinds of things is the pupil's worst enemy, unless, indeed, it be the teacher who keeps him too long and too intensely harping on the same string. It is only the knowledge that really energizes the mind which is valuable.

7. It has already been remarked that the laws of congruity and energy bear on the college or university student's choice of electives. How many subjects should such a student have at the same time,

and what should be their relations? Should he scatter his energies over a considerable field, or concentrate them on a small one?

Professor Trowbridge,* discussing some years ago the subject of economy in college work, urged that the Harvard student should study two subjects for at least three months, and two subjects only; one of these should be a hard subject, giving plenty of opportunity for application, while the other might be a comparatively light subject that could serve as a mental rest through the change which it afforded. At the end of three months two other subjects might be taken up, and the first ones be relinquished for a time; and so on to the end of the course. After observing that some studies are so nearly related that intellectual effort in one is of service to another while others are not; that Latin and Greek, philosophy and history, political economy and history, are examples of the one class, while German and French, chemistry or physics and philosophy, are examples of the other, he examined the nineteen or twenty subjects which formed in the main the elective curriculum of Harvard University. He found that the division of subjects could be reduced to twelve, by grouping together the subjects which aid each other, as follows: Latin and Greek; French and French history; German and German history; political economy and history; chemistry alone, or in conjunction with English; Spanish and Spanish history; philosophy and history; physics alone; Semitics and ancient history; fine arts and music with English, or fine arts and music as a let-up with any of the severer studies; mathematics and English; romance philology and its suitable language. Having twelve subjects, the student could pursue three of these in the nine months of each college year, and in four years he could accomplish the whole twelve; provided, of course, he wished to take all the subjects enumerated.

This scheme has been introduced mainly for the sake of illustration. In criticising it we should remember that at Harvard University all studies are elective, save only a modicum of English and physics. Although propounded for a laudable purpose, the scheme is open to one or more serious objections. Within the successive three months' period study is certainly over-specialized, and particularly in the first college years. The common freshman will not, and cannot, work up his avaliable power on one main line of study. The laws of mental energy are violated. The range of interests is too narrow. In the later years of the course this objection would be less serious. Other important questions, as whether the time allotted would be sufficient for the leading subjects, occur, but they need not be considered. This branch of the subject is dismissed with the remark that college electives call for a fuller examination than they have yet received, particularly in respect to the principles that shall underrun electives and practical administration. There is good reason to think that in some quarters, at least, *laissez faire* has been carried too far.

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* "*Atlantic Monthly*," November, 1888, pp. 671, 672.

8. The last topic to be mentioned is graduate study. While there is not, or at least should not be, a chasm between undergraduate and graduate work, still there are palpable differences of ideal and method involved. The first period looks to general cultivation. The second period looks to special cultivation. The undergraduate need not lay equal stress upon all the studies that he pursues; he may emphasize some more and some less; but he should not sacrifice general culture to Greek scholarship, Latin scholarship, mathematical scholarship, or any other kind of special scholarship. The graduate student, on the other hand, should go much farther on the road to specialization, and particularly the candidate for the doctor's degree. But even here specialization may be overdone. It is not desirable that the student should confine himself for three years to a special line of study. The first objection to such a course is that it is overgrooving the mind at the time of life supposed. Even the graduate student should not lose sight of general cultivation and fall into stark professionalism. But, secondly, a single study will not absorb to advantage the student's power. It will be carried on in derogation of the law of specific and generic fatigue. One brain tract will be overworked, while others are neglected. If the professional man needs a let-up, or an avocation, to keep his mind out of the ensnaring groove, still more the student who is yet lingering in the schools.

How many subjects then should the graduate student have? The answer will depend somewhat upon the student, as well as upon other considerations. As a rule, there should be at least two distinct lines of work, one of which may be heavy and one light. The first may include different subjects chosen with reference to congruity, as Greek literature and Greek history; Latin literature and Roman history; but there should certainly be a second distinct line of work, separate and apart from the first one, also made up with regard to congruency, that will at once cultivate breadth and also consume time and power that the main subject cannot appropriate.

At this point a cautionary remark may be dropped. It is a mistake to suppose that subjects are congruous merely because they bear the same name in part. Congruity is determined by elements and not by words. For example, how much have Greek literature and Greek antiquities, or Latin literature and Roman antiquities, in common? Certainly less than some enthusiastic scholars are wont to assume.

It will no doubt be said that this report is conservative on the subject of specialization. This is no accident. There is in the opinion of the committee good reason for reconsidering the relations of education and erudition. Professor Davidson says[*] it is the failure to draw this necessary distinction that is misleading our universities into the error of allowing students to "elect" specialties before they have completed the cycle of education; the result of which is that we have few men of thorough education or of broad and comprehensive views.

Professor Butcher, contending for the unity of learning, declares that it is at present endangered by disintegrating tendencies. "Conceive, if you can," are his words,[†] "a world of specialists, in which each man's vision and labor are concentrated on some microscopic point in the field of human activity, and the very idea of a political and social organism disappears. There is a point at which the subdivision of labor in the intellectual sphere must be checked, and some unifying principle introduced, if we are to retain any rational conception of man, or of the world, or of human life."

And finally, Professor Paulsen sounds a note of warning from the greatest of the German universities. Pleading for the unity of the university, he speaks of the danger of disintegration through the diminished influence of the faculty of arts. "Of course," he says, "there is no possibility of retrogression in the division of labor, upon which depend the mighty advances of scientific research. We are called upon, however, to oppose the spirit of 'specialism,' of over-narrow self-confinement and small-souled satisfaction with one's self; and everyone who belongs to a university is likewise called upon to help along the opposition." Dr. Paulsen[‡] suggests several remedies, the principal one of which is the maintenance of the old conception of liberal culture. "In particular, the tendency toward generalization of study, the philosophical sense, which ever stands ready to turn the details to good account in the service of the ultimate and highest insight, must always find its proper home in the faculty of philosophy. Herein may be found a peculiarly appropriate field for 'public' lectures; to present to a wider circle of hearers, to the disciples of all related branches of learning, whatever problems and results of general interest are included in a special subject."

The purpose of this report may now be briefly restated. It is to apply the law of mental congruence as limited by the laws of mental energy to some important pedagogical problems, as the fabrication of a course of study, the making up of a working program for a school, the choice of college electives, and the whole subject of graduate study. Congruence means the meeting or bringing together of things that are consonant or related; and as applied to the problems enumerated it looks to the deepening, broadening, and strengthening of

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[*] *"The Education of the Greek People,"* p. 23.

[†] *"Some Aspects of the Greek Genius,"* pp. 209, 210.

[‡] *"The German Universities"* (translated by E. D. Perry), p 234.

study and teaching by co-ordinating those studies and elements of studies that by their nature tend to support and re-enforce one another. It is hoped that the report may prove useful as a basis for further study.

B. A. HINSDALE, *Chairman.*
D. L. KIEHLE,
NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER,
A. R. TAYLOR,
CHARLES A. McMURRY,
Committee on Pedagogics.

DISCUSSION.

[REPORTED BY E. O. LYTE.]

MR. BROWN.—This is another great paper. It is a great satisfaction to live in this educational era, when educational questions are discussed in the strong and masterly way so well exemplified in this report. The author evidently had in mind that other great report on the correlation of studies, and this paper is, in a sense, complementary to that. It is a basal discussion of the much-talked of question of concentration of studies from another point of view—the psychological. The practical question is, What are congruent and what are incongruent studies? In the large view of the world, all things are congruent, for the universe is a unity. But in the school curriculum there is seemingly much incongruence of activity, as the report defines the term. The social order is an incongruous congruity. To what extent shall the incongruity in the school studies control in the isolation of the one from the other? This is the problem of concentration stated in different words. I wish that this Council would take up this basal question and discuss it in the light and spirit of this admirable report.

MR. F. LOUIS SOLDAN.—While the great majority of us will unhesitatingly assert that the explanation of the thoughts and actions of man are found on a spiritual, not a material, plane, the study of the physical conditions, which forms part of this thoughtful report, leads at every step to valuable practical conclusions. The relation between emotion and energy is well stated in the paper. Fear saps energy; a pleasurable feeling promotes the serious work of the schoolroom. The teacher who tries to look and be pleasant in her intercourse with her pupils produces an environment in which the child is at its best. Jean Paul Richter utters this thought in his beautiful saying: "Serenity is the heaven under which childhood thrives."

To create a pleasurable feeling in teaching things naturally void of interest is the art which the teacher has to learn. Herbart said: "The greatest sin in instruction is to make it tedious." Illustration, attractive presentation, variety in the required drill, keeping the pupil self-active, are means of producing a pleasurable feeling in receiving instruction, which we call interest. I am aware that this does not exhaust the definition of interest. There is another topic contained in Dr. Hinsdale's report which invites discussion—the topic of continuity. The committee lays commendable stress on simplicity of instruction and coherence in teaching, the exclusion of profuse explanations that cloud the subject instead of clearing it and the persistence of teaching in the logical and grand lines of the subject in hand.

There should be greater continuity, however, in another direction also. I refer to the frequent changes of teachers during the school life of the child. In many of our large school buildings, as soon as the child has completed a certain task assigned to the grade—say, the arithmetical knowledge and use of the number seven, or pages 27 to 100 in some reader or geography—he is "promoted" into the next room, where he has another teacher, whom he does not know and who does not know him. Why not let there be a little more continuity in this matter, and let the same teacher "move up" with the class, so that the friendly and intimate acquaintance may spring up which promotes education in every way?

MR. S. G. WILLIAMS.—Herbart, in an opinion on school classes, favors in a modified degree the plan of letting the teacher go up in the school with his class during the earlier years of instruction, passing the class finally to more special teachers when greater maturity is reached. This carries farther the idea just expressed by Professor Soldan.

As regards that part of the report which seemed to emphasize the use of text-books, the speaker believed we could learn something useful from the practice of the Germans, who, in all the earlier years of instruction, cause the pupil's work to be done with the teacher, thus teaching him how to study and to use his time economically in gaining knowledge from books. Much time is wasted in mere cram of memory by our too prevalent practice of setting text-book lessons without such preparation for study. When a boy has learned how to study he no longer needs teachers.

MR. JOSEPH BALDWIN.—For half a century I have studied these problems as best I could. This paper awakens in me the burning desire to roll back the wheels of time that I might begin these studies over again. I realize that full half the energies of teachers and pupils are wasted because of our failure to observe the laws of mental congruity and mental effort. When we learn to lead our pupils to do their best when at their best, we will begin to realize the meaning of the art of manhood. The astounding soul-waste in all our school work still dwarfs our race. I am thinking of the future. The boundless possibilities of pupils will be developed because teachers and pupils will work according to law.

In reply to several questions by Mr. James H. Baker and others. Mr. Hinsdale said that narrow training must precede broad training. "In elementary teaching," continued Mr. Hinsdale, "I am in favor of close limitations in the subject-matter, of working on a single line of thought till that is established, and then the path should be widened. I am opposed to electives in high schools if the choice of studies is left wholly to the pupil. The pupil needs the guidance of his parents and teachers in determining what studies he should pursue. At the University of Michigan about one-half the studies are prescribed and one-half are elective. I rather favor the 'group system,' and incline to think that the college elective system is 'overworked.' "

MR. BAKER.—You believe with me in liberty, but not license, in the election of studies.

MR. Z. RICHARDS.—The world is full of incongruities and contradictions, and one part of our work in the schools should be to prepare the pupil to encounter *these incongruities* and contradictions and overcome the obstacles which they place *in his path.*

Mr. John W. Cook—The striking feature of this paper to me is the fact that it is in line with the great economic movements of the modern world. It looks toward some relief from the dreadful waste which characterizes the work of the teacher. Let us hope that in some way it may go to the country so that teachers everywhere may find access to it.

Mr. L. H. Jones.—The paper of Dr. Hinsdale may make us feel discouraged, but, at the same time, hopeful. We are in danger of overlooking the fact that educators are at work upon problems as difficult and as important as those of other learned professions.

Mr. N. C. Schaeffer.—There is a line of school work along which the report is defective, viz., examinations. These are a necessary evil. We cannot do without them. But the examiners seldom pay any attention to the principles of congruity, and mental energy, and fatigue announced in the report. Some of the principles will have to be modified when applied to examinations; for instance, work must be stopped often when the maximum of mental energy has been reached. Perhaps the author of the report did not intend to discuss this phase of the question. The importance of it makes me hope that his committee will do this at some future meeting.

Mr. Hinsdale, closing the discussion, made the following observations: Mr. Soldan has spoken of the mischiefs that flow from the too frequent changes of teachers in the schools. He has said that the principle of continuity applies to teachers as well as to subjects. What has been said is not only perfectly true but it is very important. Few things in education are more absurd—if, indeed, anything is more absurd—than the too frequent changes of teachers. Suppose the child had a new mother every six months or every three months? What would be the effect upon the child's life and character? It may be replied that the analogy does not hold throughout, but it certainly does hold to a very considerable extent. It is well understood that the Jesuits were the most accomplished school teachers of their time, in the days when they dominated the nascent intellect of Europe; and it is well known that one of the rules laid down in the *Ratio Studiorum*, which was constantly enforced, was, that, extending through a series of years, the teacher should be promoted with the pupil or with the class. What is more,—there can be no question that the success of the Jesuits as teachers, in considerable measure, was due to this very fact. The regimen that now prevails in the large high schools of the country, so far as my observation extends, is to an extent vicious and mischievous. Suppose the pupil, on coming from the grammar school where he has had but a single teacher, has three leading subjects, Latin, algebra, and physical geography. Suppose, further, that he has some subordinate subjects in which he has only an occasional exercise, as in drawing, reading, and the like. Suppose, still further, that he has a different teacher for each one of these subjects. The result is, that no pupil in such a school has a teacher, and that no teacher in such a school has a pupil; every pupil has several teachers, and every teacher has a great many pieces of pupils. Who does not see that some of the most valuable results of sound education are necessarily sacrificed by such a system? It is my opinion that the employment of special teachers is overdone in many of these schools, and that the results would be far better if the pupil, on coming to the high school, could be introduced to the rigor of the special-teacher system gradually. Let him, at first, have the same teacher in two or in three subjects at least, if possible.

Mr. Williams appears not to have understood the report on the subject of text-books. The report does not recommend a text-book grind, or any kind of a grind. The committee expressly refrained from discussing that subject. It said nothing about the correlation of the teacher and the book. What it said was, that, if text-books were to be used, then the criteria laid down should be followed. I may add, however, that text-books are now used in the schools as a source of instruction, and that, to a great extent, they will continue to be so used.

Mr. Richards has told us that the world is full of incongruities and contradictions, and that one part of a school education should consist in getting the pupil ready to encounter these incongruities and contradictions. Both of these statements are certainly true, but we must remember that everything should be done in its time. Broad teaching in the beginning will defeat broad teaching in the end. Due limitation of matter is a necessary condition precedent to successful instruction. To give every one his portion of meat in due season, is a scriptural expression. Mr. Richards is a religious man, and in training his children no doubt took pains to establish them in religious faith and piety. I cannot suppose, that, at first, he stated to his children some religious ideas, and then immediately added that many people do not accept these ideas; that there is such a thing as infidelity in the world, and that, after all, it is a very serious question, in the estimation of some people, whether there is any truth or value in the essential Christian doctrines. He no doubt grounded his children in the faith, and introduced them to incongruities and contradictions later, as they were able to bear them.

Mr. Schaeffer has called our attention, and very properly, to the important subject of examinations. The committee was not unaware of the fact that that subject is embraced within the field of the laws of mental congruity and energy. It was, however, impossible to introduce the subject into the report. I may dismiss it with the remark that the subject of examinations needs to be thoroughly investigated in the light of the fundamental psychic laws that were laid down in the report. Examinations are an essential teaching process. We are not going to dispense with them. We are going, I hope, to relieve them of some of their abuses; and this we can do only as we consider the subject in the light of fundamental principles.

Mr. Brown has told us, and very truly, that the great question—the really practical question—is, what school subjects are congruous, what incongruous. No more important statement has been made in the course of the discussion than this. The object of the report was to state fundamental principles, and to refer to studies and the elements of studies only in so far as was necessary to illustrate clearly the propositions laid down. There has never been in this country, so far as I am aware, any thorough investigation of the question that Mr. Brown has stated; nor am I aware that such an investigation has been made abroad. It is a very important matter, and I shall close my remarks with recommending it to the further consideration of the Council.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON NORMAL EDUCATION—THE KIND AND AMOUNT OF PRACTICE-WORK, AND ITS PLACE IN THE NORMAL SCHOOL COURSE.

BY JOHN W. COOK, NORMAL, ILL.

In order that information might be obtained respecting the practice of state normal schools in this country, a circular was prepared, asking for quite detailed statements as to the courses of study offered, and especially as to the organization of practice-schools, the amount of preparatory theoretical discipline given before entering upon practice-work, the size of classes in practice-schools, whether normal pupils teach these classes for a part of each day or take entire charge of a room for a number of weeks, methods of criticising the work of the pupil-teacher, and the whole amount of time spent by them in the actual work of instructing children.

Reports were received from fifty-seven state normal schools, one county normal school, and five city normal schools. Twenty-nine states are represented in these returns; hence, your committee concludes that it has obtained sufficient information to enable it to determine, with a fair degree of accuracy, the methods generally employed in these institutions. With four exceptions, these schools are provided with model or practice-schools. The number of grades represented varies from three to twelve. Eight appears to be the preferred number. Where there are but three grades but little practice-work is done, the children constituting a model school or school of observation rather than a practice-school.

Forty per cent of the practice-schools are public schools. In a few instances they are the only public schools in their locality.

The instruction given by the normal pupils in these schools varies from seventeen to one hundred per cent of all of it. Since the average is about seventy-seven per cent, it appears that the children receive little instruction from any other source.

Three plans are followed in the practice-work. The first plan occupies the pupil-teacher for one, two, and sometimes three periods each day with the care of a class of from five to fifteen children. He is expected to carry on a portion of his regular work in the normal department at the same time. A second plan discontinues the normal pupil's recitations, and puts him in charge of a room containing from fifteen to thirty children, of whom he is to take entire charge. A third plan combines the first and second, requiring a preparatory discipline of several weeks in instructing a single class for one or two recitation periods daily before taking charge of a room.

The large majority of normal schools use the first plan. The second has a few followers, and among them are some of the most reputable of our teachers' training schools. The third is followed in a small number of schools; yet is more popular than the second.

The time in the course at which the practice-work begins is by no means uniform, yet there is a strikingly preponderating preference for the senior year, where the course is three or more years. The number of schools in which this work begins earlier is scarcely a third of all the schools reporting.

The time spent in practice-work varies from twelve weeks of one recitation a day to the entire charge of a room for twenty weeks. The average of the schools using the first plan is not far from thirty weeks, which would seem to be about the quantitative equivalent of six weeks of regular school work, although there are considerations which render such comparisons difficult.

Equal diversity is found in the organization of the critic force. Three quite distinct plans appear. In some cases the work is all done by the instructors of the normal department. The teacher of arithmetic not only instructs the normal pupils in their study of the subject, but he also supervises the practice-work in the same subject. A second plan puts a principal over each grade, and assigns the supervision of the pupil-teachers as an additional duty. A third plan provides critic-teachers, whose entire time is devoted to the work of supervision, principals being supplied for each of the rooms, whose duties include the care of the children and a considerable part of their instruction, in order that they may be protected, at least in part, from the inexperience of the normal pupils. These critic-teachers take entire charge of several grades, or of specific subjects in all of the grades.

The methods of making the criticisms are quite uniform. They are given in the form of general corrections in teachers' meetings, and in private conversations with individual teachers.

The reports of the various schools have proved to be very interesting to the members of the committee, and this opportunity is taken to express their appreciation of the kindness manifested by the several principals in placing the material at their disposal.

The committee ventures to offer a few suggestions upon some of the topics presented.

For convenience of discussion the order of the general theme *is inverted, and* the last question receives consideration first.

I.—WHERE IN THE COURSE SHALL THE PRACTICE-WORK BEGIN?

It appears to the committee to be quite impossible to answer this question with any great degree of definiteness for a large number of schools. So many varying conditions appear that each school must determine it in large part for itself. The facts which will have greatest weight in this determination will be the age and general scholarship of the applicants for admission, and the amount of theoretical pedagogical work possible for the early part of the normal course.

A fair percentage of normal schools admits candidates who have completed the work of the eight grades below the high school. Others require an academic preparation substantially equivalent to that demanded by a certificate of the second grade. A small number of schools admit only high school graduates, or others having an equivalent preparation.

Your committee is of the opinion that the qualifications first mentioned are too low. Not only is the academic preparation insufficient, but such candidates are too young to undertake the serious work of a professional school. Young people who have just emerged from the grades cannot be expected to appreciate the gravity of the teacher's task. If conditions are such as to render it expedient to admit candidates of so low a grade of scholarship and of such general immaturity it is evident that practice-work must begin late in the course.

A rigorous academic training becomes the first necessity. Theoretical pedagogical work of the most elementary character is impossible with children, and to permit them to assume the role of teacher would mean a revival of the long obsolete monitorial system, in which the blind led the blind, and with the usual result.

Candidates who have received a teacher's certificate ought to be able to find a place in the normal school. It is certainly far better that they should be there than in charge of schools, unless they have fitted themselves for their work in some fairly adequate way. Such candidates should be able to enter upon the preparatory pedagogical discipline quite early in the course; hence, practice-teaching will become possible and proper correspondingly sooner. They may be assumed to be fairly mature, and having secured the requisite authority for teaching, their stay in the school is likely to be briefer. They should have an opportunity to engage in the actual work of instruction, under superior supervision, before attempting the unaided management of a school, if it can be done without sacrificing the theoretical work which is assumed to be indispensable.

Graduates of good high schools are generally equipped with a degree of culture and maturity which permits them to enter at once upon the study of teaching as a science. A year of professional discipline would seem to entitle them to a place in the practice-school. Indeed, in many cases they may properly find themselves there after a much shorter probationary period. Schools in which the course is but one year, and "purely professional," as they are termed, as in the case of most of the city normal schools, begin the practice-work immediately, or after a few weeks. This seems to the committee to be a dangerous custom to make universal; yet, with many pupils, it is probably safe.

A fourth class should not be overlooked. In every state normal school a considerable number of persons will be found who have already taught for several terms. They are usually the consolation of the supervisors of practice, as they are able to mitigate the evils incident to a practice-school. It is often possible to permit such persons to carry theoretical and practice-work side by side, and at the beginning of their course.

Although not strictly germane to the subject, your committee desires to offer a few further suggestions respecting the qualifications for admission to normal schools.

In some of the states, more particularly those in which there are several training schools for teachers, a high school diploma, or an equivalent certificate of scholarship, is insisted upon. In some of the states such requirements appear unwise. In the first place, the very large majority of high school graduates are girls. If all who are disposed to become teachers should enter the normal schools, they would not fill those schools to anything like their capacity. Moreover, statistics clearly prove, that, where such requirements are demanded, the enrollment is almost exclusively made up of girls. It is the opinion of the committee that the great preponderance of women in the teaching force is already a grave misfortune. Such a policy tends to increase the evil rather than to remedy it, since the boys who graduate from the high schools, with occasional exceptions, find more remunerative, and consequently more attractive, fields elsewhere. Moreover, the country school problem should not be ignored in the interests of the town. Experience shows that young men and young women who have received only the instruction of district schools, but who have attained a good degree of maturity, quite frequently surpass the high school graduates in those qualities which the normal schools especially covet. Many of them have already served a considerable apprenticeship as teachers, and have thus acquired that maturity of view and that practical sagacity without which persons are teachers only in name. It is idle to expect that country schools are to be supplied with a high class of carefully prepared teachers in the near, or comparatively near, future. There will be an occasional district so favorably conditioned as to maintain a school for eight months and to be able to pay a fair salary to its teacher, but the urbanizing of our population is going on at such a rapid rate that the size of the country school is constantly diminishing. These schools must be supplied, in the main, by persons who are willing to work for small pay. The normal school should offer educational inducements to the strongest and best-prepared students in these country districts on condition that they shall return to their homes and engage in teaching for a period of not less than the time of their attendance at the normal school. It is a common remark of normal principals that much of their best material comes from these rural schools, and that these young people have acquired such habits of industry and take such an intensely practical view of life, that, at the end of a single year in the normal school, they are able to hold their own with the high school graduates. Moreover, the recognition of this class of applicants brings into the normal schools a body of sturdy young men, many of whom remain in the teachers' ranks permanently, and subsequently become principals and superintendents.

The earnestness which is so striking a characteristic of the normal student, and which is so often lacking in the high school and the college, finds its explanation in part in the presence of these young men and young women from the country. Their lack of education and limited acquaintance with many of the conventionalities of social life should not necessarily shut them out of the normal school. Although the range of studies which have occupied their attention is often narrow, so much time has been spent upon the elementary studies as to give a degree of power unknown to the pupils of the graded schools who have traversed the same ground in a limited time.

Such young people are able to enter upon professional work profitably quite as early as many of the high school graduates, and observation of quite large numbers of such pupils seems to demonstrate their ability to hold their own with them after a single year in the normal school.

Much as normal schools need higher scholarship as a prerequisite for admission, it is hoped that the managers of such institutions in the Mississippi Valley, and perhaps in the farther West, will not be so captivated with the customs that may well obtain in New England or New York, with their numerous schools, as to shut their doors against the country youth or to defer their practice-work for such candidates to the third or fourth year.

It is doubtless easy for a state that has a dozen state schools for teachers and a hundred and fifty academies or high schools receiving state aid for elementary professional training to require a high standard for admission, and then postpone its practice-work to a late period in the course, confident that most of the pupils will complete the course. In states, however, where even poorly prepared normal students are in great demand, such a course seems by no means the wisest.

Your committee is further of the opinion that the practice-work should be preceded by a somewhat careful theoretical preparation, and that this feature of the curriculum should begin with the student's admission to the school, or very shortly thereafter.

To prescribe just what this work should be would transcend the limits set to this report, as it would attempt to formulate the pedagogical course of the normal school. However, it should be of such a character as to give some adequate idea of the gravity of the problem of education, and of the view which modern peoples, at least, have taken of it. Some of the general facts of the nature of mind, the relation of the conventional knowledges to modern life, and the special methods of instruction suitable for elementary schools should receive at least some degree of attention before a pupil should be intrusted with the care of a class. It is of the greatest importance that the normal student should be awakened to something like a fair apprehension of the difficulty of his task, of the breadth of the field which is open to exploration by the student of pedagogy, and of the immense significance of the teacher, and this apprehension should come as early in the course as possible.

As to the character of the practice-work, there is a wide diversity of opinion, as has already been stated. Shall it consist alone of the daily single or double recitation? Shall it be made to imitate as closely as possible the work which the pupil is to perform when he shall enter upon the independent life of the teacher, or shall these methods be so combined as to make the former preparatory to the latter?

As has been stated, the first method is the one employed in the large majority of normal schools. While your committee is of the opinion that the third method is best adapted to the securing of the most admirable results, the practical difficulties in the way of its general adoption are recognized as quite insurmountable. The interests of the children are sacred, and should be surrounded by every possible safeguard. It is not forgotten, however, that the average teacher in the public schools has not yet attained ideal perfection, and it has been demonstrated in many cases that practice-schools are far better that the local public schools. Indeed, it may be said in entire seriousness, that much of the sympathy expended upon the children of the practice-schools is worse than wasted.

In defense of the first method, it may be urged that it is in accord with the general principle that relative simplicity should have much to do in determining the sequence of steps in the acquisition of an art. It is far easier to instruct a single class for one or two periods than to take entire charge of a room. In consequence, the practice-work may begin at an earlier period than would otherwise be possible, a consideration worthy of no little respect when it is remembered, that, in a majority of normal schools, the average student attends for only a little more than one-third of the course.

A second defense may be found in the fact that practice-schools of great size would be needed for the accommodation of most normal schools. Those institutions which employ the second plan defer the practice-work to the end of the course, and thus avoid the difficulty by waiting until four-fifths of their pupils have left them. If the reports are understood, there are schools of the highest repute which have won their leadership by what they do for an eighth or a tenth of their membership, the rest having disappeared before reaching the practice-school, or even the technical pedagogical work. Since the missing majority presumably become teachers, it is an interesting question whether such an adjustment is wisest. It should be remembered that the children of the schools in which this escaped contingent appears merit some consideration.

The novice who has spent a year or year and a half in the normal school, and has had the pedagogical preparation possible, may safely begin his practice-work with a daily recitation or two, under the guidance of competent critic-teachers, and may even do admirable work, when it would be quite impossible to manage a room and take charge of all its instruction. If he should withdraw before the beginning of the third year, as the majority do in most normal schools, he will have had an experience that will be quite invaluable to him in his subsequent work. If he shall remain, the same thing may be said.

The third defense of this system appears in the fact that it permits the normal student to continue his theoretical work along with his practice-work. The principle of apperception is involved to no inconsiderable degree in such an arrangement. Any plan which postpones the practice-work to the completion of the theoretical work does so at the expense of a proper appreciation of the latter. It is often remarked by normal students that their subsequent instruction gains immensely in significance after dropping out for a year of teaching. This fact compensates somewhat for the experiences which children have been undergoing somewhere away from the normal critic or the county supervisors, but it adds point to the argument at least. It is quite doubtful whether one really values pedagogical instruction by a proper standard until he has been obliged to officiate at that most interesting and quite remarkable performance which is expected to eventuate in the ability to recognize a word or make a computation.

It is granted that this method of preparing teachers for the charge of a school is defective. In the first place, the classes are usually quite small, many of the reports indicating from "five to ten" as the ordinary number. Such classes give small opportunity for acquiring skill in discipline and general management. That is a result which comes ordinarily with experience. A day in charge of a school may present more problems than a month with a small class. Moreover, the single recitation plan leaves each teacher quite in the dark as to the child's occupation in other subjects; hence, the importance of regular teachers for a portion of the day. Doubtless the frequent change in instructors has its evil effects upon the children, who need to have, so far as possible, a steady and persistent system of influences at work upon them, to the end that genuine stability and firmness of character may result.

Many of these evil tendencies may be counteracted by judicious supervision, but enough of them will remain to prevent the practice-school from becoming ideal.

It is the opinion of your committee that each person should have an opportunity before graduation to take charge of a room until he shall have demonstrated his ability to manage it successfully alone, or shall have shown that he has made a serious mistake in selecting teaching for his vocation.

At this suggestion difficulties present themselves in great numbers. With schools of any considerable size a system including several hundred children and a large number of rooms becomes necessary. A combination of the first and second plan is possible only under such favorable conditions. A practice-school of good size, supplemented by the schools of a town or part of a city, would seem to be quite essential to such an arrangement of the practice-work. A modification of this plan, by which two are assigned to each school, one serving alone for two and a half hours, the two working together for an hour, and the second finishing the day, will realize good results, and permit the theoretical work to run parallel with the practice.

As to the third point under discussion, the amount of practice-work, your committee would recommend that there shall be at least enough to reveal the significance of the educational theories taught, to show their entire practicability, and also to give the pupil-teacher a clear sense of freedom in dealing with children.

Superior skill cannot be expected, since that is the result of *long-continued practice*; but that course must be considered seriously defective which does not leave the pupil-teacher well stocked with ideas in which he thoroughly believes, an awakened sense of power, faith in his ability to put his ideas into practice, an ardent love for the schoolroom and for childhood, and an earnest desire to find a place in the noblest guild of teachers.

Realizing the imperfections of the normal school, and the difficulties attending the organization and administration of this indispensable department of its work, your committee submits this report, with the hope that it may be supplemented by the more valuable experience of the Council.

JOHN W. COOK, *Chairman.*
R. G. BOONE,
W. R. GARRETT,
IRWIN SHEPARD,
JAMES M. GREEN,
Committee on Normal Education.

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